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A Model of Emotion Management for U.S. Army

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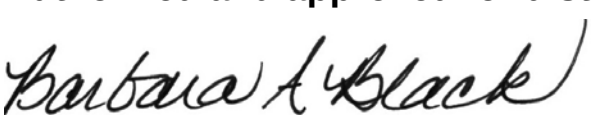

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Emotion management may be particularly important for effective Army leadership in certain performance domains. In addition to typical leadership tasks such as providing performance feedback, resolving conflicts and team-building activities, Army leaders must perform in potentially volatile and high stress situations, handle life or death decisions, interact with individuals from a variety of cultures and backgrounds, and address issues related to living over-seas. These reflect some of the important performance contexts facing Army leaders in which emotions can play a significant part. This research proposes a model of emotion management intended to form the basis for training Army leaders. The model integrates several areas of emotion research, including emotional intelligence, emotion regulation, and emotion expression. Specified in this model are four key domains that could potentially be enhanced through training interventions, including 1) emotion knowledge, 2) emotion skills, 3) situational moderators, and 4) emotion relevant performance domains. The model also notes the importance of considering individual differences in developing emotions management training, as well as organizational support for this kind of training initiative. Propositions regarding components of this model are suggested to advance theoretical understanding of emotion management concepts, specify directions for future research and identify implications for training leaders in emotion management. Finally, existing training programs of emotion management skills are reviewed with respect to the content areas described in the model.

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Emotion management, emotional intelligence, emotion regulation, leadership

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A MODEL OF EMOTION MANAGEMENT FOR U.S. ARMY LEADERS

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A MODEL OF EMOTION MANAGEMENT FOR U.S. ARMY LEADERS

The U.S. Army has arguably become one of the most socially complex organizations given the nature and uncertainty characterizing the peace-keeping, humanitarian, warfare, disaster-relief and other operations in which it is involved. Those operations require unprecedented adaptability and the ability to coordinate and cooperate with multiple constituencies both within and outside of the Army (Meese & Morgan, 2005). The interpersonal challenges of typical leadership roles are heightened for Army leaders, who must not only handle routine activities such as providing performance feedback, handling conflicts, and coordinating work teams/groups, but who must also deal with subordinates facing extended tours of duty, new recruits who lack maturity and social judgment, combat-related stress, and other pressures that increase the volatility of the day-to-day work environment. Army officers also face numerous interpersonal challenges associated with being deployed in foreign countries and interacting with military and civilian individuals outside of their own organization and country (Gurstein, 1999; Shamir & Ben-Ari, 1999).

These and other interpersonal challenges require emotion-related abilities and skills that have only recently emerged as worthy of research and development in the broader research and practice of leadership. Just a few short decades ago, organizational practitioners and scholars still largely presumed that organizational behavior followed a rational rule set and that effective performance was achieved through thoughts and actions largely devoid of emotion (Ashforth, 2000; Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerbe, 2000). Today, with research mounting on the effects of emotion on various kinds of cognitive tasks and social behavior (e.g., Isen 2003; Lewis & Haviland-Jones, 2000; Taylor, 1991), considerably more attention is being paid to the impact of affect and emotions on different tasks and under different conditions. This has also led to interest in emotion-related capacities related to emotional intelligence and emotional regulation. Theories and research on these capacities suggest that certain skills and strategies related to these broad capabilities can be trained. This kind of training could help Army officers increase self-awareness, more accurately read their own and others' emotions, regulate their emotional responses to affective events, and help subordinates and those around them to better manage their own emotions.

Two main goals were addressed in this Phase I research. First, a model of emotion management was developed, incorporating a variety of emotion-related knowledge and skills, to provide a theoretical and practical foundation for building a training program for Army leaders. Additionally, existing training programs focusing on emotion-related capabilities were investigated, and each was summarized with respect to several criteria such as content coverage, learning approaches or format, and effectiveness.

Emotion Management and Leadership

Emotions in the context of organizational processes are generally viewed as quite adaptive and rational and as valuable sources of information (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Lazarus, 1991). This is particularly true in leadership domains where research has suggested the use and appropriate management of emotions is central to effective leadership (Ashkanasy & Daus,

2002; Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, & LePine, 2008; Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; George, 2000; Pescosolido, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005; Waples & Connelly, 2008). Not only must leaders handle a variety of tasks at multiple organizational levels, but they must also consider the wide array of social implications of their actions. The increased interpersonal interactions, complex social demands, and the weight of their decisions make emotions particularly influential in leader performance, and recent research indicates that emotions do, in fact, influence leader performance, particularly in domains such as decision making (Grawitch & Munz, 2005), communicating a vision (Waples & Connelly, 2008), and managing conflicts (Ayoko, Callan, & Härtel, 2008).

It should be noted that emotion regulation capacities develop throughout the entire lifespan, beginning at a very early age. As humans develop physically, neurologically, and socially, they learn how to regulate and control emotions through external cues such as parental control, discipline and societal norms and values, through modulating physiological and emotional arousal, and through the development of internal self-regulation processes (Eisenberg, 1998). However, while most adults have some level of experience and competence in recognizing and regulating emotions, a variety of factors (e.g., individual differences, situational exposure, and developmental experiences) influence the level of competence reached. Thus, adults still display much variation in their knowledge, understanding, and skill in recognizing, regulating, and displaying emotions.

Emotion management is particularly important to leadership performance in military contexts because, in addition to typical leadership tasks such as providing performance feedback, resolving conflicts and establishing an effective command climate, Army leaders must also lead subordinates in potentially volatile and high stress situations, negotiate with individuals from a variety of cultures and backgrounds, and address issues related to being deployed in foreign countries. Understanding and managing one's own emotions and those of others may even make a critical difference in life or death situations. Brinsfield and Baktis (2005) described an incident during Operation Iraqi Freedom in which Lieutenant Colonel (LTC) Christopher Hughes effectively managed emotions to prevent a potentially volatile situation from escalating. As he led his battalion into a mission in Najaf, Iraq, the troops were met by a hostile crowd that began attacking them with rocks. LTC Hughes, despite being hit several times, demonstrated restraint and instructed his troops to do the same by kneeling, pointing their weapons down, and displaying positive emotional expressions towards the crowd. The crowd, in turn, ceased their attack and LTC Hughes was able to identify those who initiated the attack and took appropriate action to further resolve the confrontation. Given the critical role emotion management plays in certain aspects of Army leadership, there is a need for training emotion-related knowledge and skills. The model proposed here is the foundation for such training, integrating concepts across several key areas of literature.

Theoretical Bases of Emotion Management

Several areas of research on emotions in organizations provide a starting place for developing an integrated model, including theories of emotional intelligence, emotion regulation, and emotional expression. Certainly these areas are pertinent to and largely subsumed under the broader construct of emotion management; however, they are relatively separate and distinct

bodies of work, with little overlap or integration. This lack of integration limits the value of each of these models to ultimately understanding how emotions and the management of emotions influence leader performance. Before integrating existing theories, key models and constructs in each area are reviewed.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) was first described by Salovey and Mayer (1990) as the ability to use emotions to facilitate reasoning and thought. However, others have viewed EI as a mixture of traits. Integrative ability models of EI focus on what individuals need to possess in regards to knowledge, skills, and abilities in order to process emotions and emotional information. Mixed trait models include more variables, focusing on abilities, personality traits and motivation, and attitudes associated with emotion processing. Table 1 summarizes the components of three popular EI theories.

Table 1

Theories of Emotional Intelligence

Theory	Model Type and EI Definition	EI Components
Salovey & Mayer (1990); Mayer & Salovey (1997)	Ability Model The ability to carry out accurate reasoning focused on emotions and to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought	1) Accurately perceiving emotion (in oneself and others using verbal and non-verbal cues) 2) Using emotions to facilitate thought (redirect attention, facilitate decision-making, consider points of view, promote problem solving) 3) Understanding emotions and emotion processes (what causes them, interrelationships, emotion blends) 4) Managing emotions (controlling the experience/expression of emotions in self and in interactions with others)
Goleman (1995)	Mixed Trait How well a person handles his or her feelings; how well a person empathizes and gets along with others; Components are learned capabilities that must be developed to achieve outstanding performance	1) Self-awareness (emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence) 2) Self-regulation (self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovation) 3) Motivation (achievement drive, commitment to group/organization, initiative, optimism) 4) Empathy (understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, political awareness) 5) Social skills (influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, creating team capabilities)
Bar-On (1997, 2006)	Mixed Trait An array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that impact intelligent behavior	1) Intrapersonal (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-actualization) 2) Interpersonal (empathy, social responsibility, establishing interpersonal relationships) 3) Stress management (stress tolerance, impulse control) 4) Adaptability (reality testing, flexibility, problem-solving) 5) General Mood (optimism, happiness)

Controversy exists over the relationship of EI to leadership and whether it is necessary for effective leadership to occur (Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2009; Locke, 2005). Empirical support for how well EI predicts leadership effectiveness is mixed (Feyerheim & Rice, 2002; Landy, 2005; Locke, 2005). One of the few research efforts providing validation evidence

was conducted by Bar-On, Handley, and Fund (2006). Several dimensions of Bar-On's mixed model, including assertiveness, establishing interpersonal relationships, happiness, empathy, and stress tolerance, discriminated between high and low performing recruiters in the United States Air Force. Additionally, higher performing combat Soldiers in the Israeli Defense Forces demonstrated higher levels of self-regard, impulse control, emotional self-awareness, and reality testing. These findings indicated that at least some components of the mixed trait models are positively related to job performance in military settings. However, this research did not control for the influence of general cognitive ability and personality, potentially limiting the authors' conclusions.

Along these lines, Antonakis (2003) noted that research claiming to provide empirical support for the relationship of EI to leadership has not controlled for competing variables or common method variance, and have not used measures designed specifically for EI. A recent meta-analysis examining the relationship of EI to transformational leadership showed a small validity estimate (r = .12) when same source rater bias was taken into account (Harms & Credé, 2010).

Recent debates question whether EI should be considered a form of "intelligence." These debates focused primarily on the mixed trait models where EI was assessed using self-report items. Some researchers have argued that constructs within these models are not clearly defined and are not well-differentiated from self-concept and basic personality attributes (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003; Landy, 2005; McRae, 2000).

The criticisms of EI have not been restricted solely to mixed trait model approaches. Researchers have also criticized the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), questioning whether the four abilities measured in this test are distinct from general intelligence. Since this construct is labeled as "intelligence," the fact that the items on the MSCEIT are scored based on norms or expert opinions, rather than objective right or wrong answers, is a point of contention with this measure (Matthews et al., 2002).

Notwithstanding these issues, the integrative ability model (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) provides the clearest articulation to date of emotional abilities and a way to measure these abilities. The MSCEIT has demonstrated content validity of the test items, response-process validity, reliability, and convergent and discriminant relationships with measures of related constructs (Mayer et al., 2008; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Meaningful relationships with a range of criteria have been shown. For example, scores on the MSCEIT were positively associated with criteria such as empathy, prosocial behavior, quality of interpersonal relationships, and agreeableness (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999). Apart from the MSCEIT, other measures of EI have demonstrated predictive validity with important performance outcomes, such as group decision-making (Graves, 1999) and quality of customer service (Rice, 1999). More recently, Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) found that accurately assessing emotional self-awareness in both oneself and others was associated with team effectiveness. While EI has been faced with criticism, it is useful for predicting performance in leadership-related domains and aspects of the ability-based models should be incorporated into a model of emotion management.

The popularity of EI since Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original article has been widespread. Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) noted that it is important for researchers to familiarize themselves with the emotions literature before adopting an EI model. Accordingly, the model of emotion management presented in this paper highlights emotion-focused constructs from the existing ability-based models of EI and the relevant findings. Whereas the research on EI is rather broad, the next two areas of emotions research reflect more focused conceptions of emotion management.

Emotion Regulation

The different processes and strategies people use to regulate emotions have gained increasing attention in the emotions literature. Emotion regulation refers to strategies for controlling or managing the experience of emotions (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007). Researchers differ, however, in terms of how they categorize emotion regulation strategies. Some focus on strategies for regulating emotional experiences, while others focus more generally on what aspects of the emotional experience should be regulated. Four theories of emotion regulation are summarized in Table 2.

Gross's (1998) model of emotion regulation is widely cited. This model included four categories of antecedent regulation strategies, or types of regulation that occur prior to a person fully experiencing an emotion. Gross also identified response-focused regulation strategies, or those that occur after an emotion has been experienced. Emotion regulation might occur consciously, subconsciously or in a transition between consciousness (Gross, 2007). Furthermore, multiple strategies might be used at any given time. In this respect, the regulation strategies are not sequential in nature as originally conceptualized; rather, individuals might start regulating at any point in the process and switch between strategies as appropriate. The effectiveness of any given strategy depends on the context. Thus, in some situations a particular strategy might be adaptive and in other situations the same strategy might be maladaptive.

There are only a few empirical investigations evaluating the effectiveness of particular strategies. One such investigation was conducted by Gross (1998) in which reappraisal (an antecedent strategy) and suppression (a response strategy) were examined as they influenced emotional response tendencies (behavioral, experiential, and physiological). He found that both strategies reduced behavioral expression of emotion, but only reappraisal reduced the experience of disgust. Additionally, suppression resulted in increased physiological activation (finger pulse, temperature, and skin conductance). Similarly, Gross and John (2003) found that there are different outcomes associated with using suppression and reappraisal. Suppression has been associated with less desirable consequences than reappraisal such as decreased interpersonal functioning. This could be because those who use suppression do not like opening up and expressing their emotions to others, thus, limiting their close social relationships. In contrast, reappraisal has been associated positively with interpersonal functioning and well-being but is more difficult to engage in, as it involves changing the way one views an emotionally-charged situation. While Gross's (1998) model has received the most attention, the model here includes other emotion regulation models in Table 2 for the purpose of building a more comprehensive model of emotion management.

Table 2
Theories of Emotion Regulation

Theory	Emotion Regulation Definition	Characteristics of Emotional Experiences	Emotion Regulation Strategies or Aspects
Gross (1998)	Conscious and non-conscious strategies individuals use to increase, maintain, or decrease one or more components of an emotional response	Emotional experiences are comprised of subjective interpretation of feelings and have the potential to evoke behavioral responses and autonomic and neuroendocrine changes preceding and following behavior	*Antecedent focused strategies* 1) Situation selection 2) Situation modification 3) Attentional deployment 4) Cognitive change *Response focused strategies* 5) Response modulation
Westen (1985, 1994)	Conscious and subconscious processes applied in order to minimize unpleasant and aversive emotions and maximize pleasant emotions	Emotional experiences are behavioral (are linked to operant conditioning) cognitive (are generated by comparison of actual and desired states) psychodynamic (are conscious and unconscious coping mechanisms) and evolutionary (are adaptive)	1) *Reality-focused responses* (actively coping versus acting impulsively) 2) *Externalizing defenses* (blaming self versus others) 3) *Avoidant defenses* (consciously avoiding unpleasant versus unpleasant affect leaking into consciousness)
Larsen (2000)	Mechanisms that enable a person to resolve the discrepancy between undesired and desired mood states; usually to minimize unpleasant moods and maximize pleasant moods	Moods are differentiated from emotions; moods last longer than discrete emotional states, have less intensity, and are associated with more sustained responses of bodily systems	*Regulatory focus* – situation or mood *Strategy type* – behavior or cognition *Strategies* 1) Situation and behavior focused (e.g., talk to a friend, withdraw) 2) Mood and situation focused (e.g., distract, socialize, vent) 3) Situation and cognition focused (e.g., cognitively reappraise, downward social comparison) 4) Mood and cognition focused (e.g., relax)
Thompson (1994)	Extrinsic and intrinsic processes for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions (especially intensive and temporal features) to accomplish goals	Emotional experience can be characterized with respect to: physiological arousal, neurological activation, cognitive appraisal, attention processes, and response tendencies	*Aspects of emotion that are regulated:* 1) Neurophysiologic responses 2) Attention 3) Information processing 4) Construals of emotional events 5) Encoding of emotion cues 6) Access to coping resources, 7) Demands of familiar situations 8) Response selection.

Focusing solely on emotion regulation strategies, however, does not provide a complete picture of the influence that emotions and the management of emotions has on performance. For instance, emotion regulation strategies often do not include the perception or recognition of emotions in oneself and others or the different ways in which emotions can be expressed and the implications of the display of different emotions. Along these lines, the next section will discuss the third general area of emotions research—emotional expression and emotional display.

Emotional Expression and Display

Emotional expression and emotional display involve verbal and non-verbal responses to emotion stimuli. Some researchers within this realm have focused on regulating *what* emotions are expressed (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; King & Emmons, 1990; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000), while others have focused on *how* emotions are expressed (Ekman & Friesen, 1969, 1975; Grandey, 2000).The first approach to emotional expression, understanding *what* emotion is being expressed, is discussed below.

Research on emotional expression distinguishes between the expression of positive and negative emotions, seeking to differentiate the effects of displaying each. For instance, some findings have suggested that expressing positive emotions is desirable, while negative emotions should be suppressed (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). These researchers assume that work environments require employees to suppress negative emotions and express positive emotions as part of their job. Displaying a different emotion than one feels is known as emotional labor and often results in strain or stress when performed frequently over time. Other researchers have suggested that the effectiveness of positive or negative emotional expression depends on the situation and the desired outcomes (Sy et al., 2005). They found that negative leader mood caused negative moods in individual followers, but resulted in increased effort expended by the group. A positive leader mood caused positive moods in followers and better workgroup performance.

The second general area of emotional expression research focuses on *how* emotions are expressed. In explaining emotional display, Grandey (2000) suggested that emotion regulation processes are made up of two components, surface acting and deep acting, both of which can result in emotional labor. Surface acting involves suppressing the emotion one feels and faking the behavioral responses, resulting in an outcome-focused regulation strategy similar to Gross's (1998) response modulation. Deep acting requires changing the emotion one feels in order to display emotions that are likely to be more appropriate in the organizational context. Individuals want to express what is normatively acceptable, and thus, will engage in either deep acting or surface acting in order to express emotions appropriately (Hochschild, 1983). Grandey is one of the first emotion scholars to link emotion regulation strategies, such as attentional deployment and cognitive change (Gross, 1998), to specific kinds of emotional expression. For example, she suggests that cognitive reappraisal is associated with deep acting, while response strategies such as suppression are associated with surface acting.

In a different model of emotional expression, Ekman and Friesen (1969, 1975) identified six aspects of expression management. These strategies for managing emotional expression include 1) expressing the emotion in its true form, 2) expressing the emotion less strongly than experienced, 3) expressing the emotion at a heightened level, 4) expressing no emotion, 5) expressing the feeling with a verbal or non-verbal qualifier to modify the expression, and 6) displaying an opposite emotion. Categorizing the types of emotional expression based on consistency or discrepancy with experienced emotion provides a way to conceptualize emotional expression similar to Grandey's (2000) description of surface acting and deep acting. However, Ekman and Friesen's categorization goes beyond what was proposed by Grandey, incorporating

additional ways in which emotional expression can be modified, such as amplifying and qualifying.

As with emotion regulation, however, these models provide a partial picture of what is relevant for effective emotion management. Emotion management involves knowledge of emotion, and skill in recognizing, regulating and responding to or expressing emotions. Additionally, this model development effort considers how emotion management affects performance, focusing on particular aspects of leader performance in which emotions are likely influential. Understanding the trainability of these aspects of emotions management is also essential for this effort. The next section reviews evidence relevant to training of emotion management.

Training and Emotion Management

Although many validation efforts have focused on measuring constructs related to emotion management, relatively few research efforts have investigated the training and development of emotion management knowledge and skills (Lopes, Côté, & Salovey, 2006). Indeed, there is an ongoing debate in the literature focusing on the extent to which emotion management can be trained.

There is ample evidence from the clinical psychology literature indicating that it is possible for a person to change his or her emotional states and emotion-related behavior through therapy and counseling interventions. In particular, a range of cognitive behavioral therapies exist, such as cognitive processing therapy (Sobel, Resick, & Rabalais, 2009) rational-emotive therapy (Silverman, McCarthy, & McGovern, 1993) dialectical behavior therapy (Stepp, Epler, Jahng, & Trull, 2008) and mindfulness (Barnhofer, Crane, Hargus, Amarasinghe, Winder, & Williams, 2009) that have been shown to be effective in helping people to cope with or minimize negative emotional states, and generate more positive emotional states. Cognitive behavioral therapies are based on a cognitive model of emotional response (Monson & Freidman, 2006). This model suggests that *thoughts* cause feelings and behaviors rather than specific situations, events or people. Cognitive behavioral therapies focus on helping people change the way they think about situations to make them feel better and have more adaptive reactions. These types of therapies have been helpful in reducing symptoms of a wide range of clinical disorders such as generalized anxiety, depression, panic disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder, bipolar disorder, and others. A comprehensive review of the efficacy of these types of clinical interventions is beyond the scope of this paper. While there is a large amount of literature suggesting that cognitively-oriented approaches to managing emotional states are useful, it is important to bear two points in mind. First, much of this evidence comes from samples of individuals with clinical disorders. While this research is of great consequence to the mental health industry, it is unclear to what extent the mental health research can be generalized to understanding the day to day emotions that comprise the fabric of typical working life for individuals who do not require mental health services. Similarly, it is unclear to what extent models of based on the “normal” range of human emotion can be generalized to models of emotional disorders. Second, the efficacy of such approaches may rely on the training, skill, and experience of the counselor or clinician. It is unclear how well such techniques work in non-clinical or workplace settings.

A question central to determining the trainability of emotion management is whether aspects of emotion management are skills or abilities. Abilities are relatively stable and enduring over time and are generally less influenced by training. Skills, however, are more malleable and can be developed through training. Much of the EI literature, though not all, has discussed EI as involving certain abilities (Mayer et al., 1999). The skills perspective on EI has indicated that EI attributes can develop and change over time and through specific interventions (Goleman, 1995; Hopfl & Linstead, 1997). Research by Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) showed that individuals' EI improved after training, offering initial evidence for its trainability.

In addition to the trainability of EI, a number of researchers have suggested it is possible to train specific emotions-related skills. Lopes et al. (2006) discussed emotion-related skill development with respect to Gross's (1998) model of emotion regulation. For example, they suggested that employees can be trained to question overly negative thoughts in order to prevent rumination. Citing Fredrickson's (2000) work they also suggested that training can help people regulate emotions through humor and emphasizing a positive work atmosphere. Additionally, Elfenbein (2006) provided evidence for the trainability of an individual's skill at perceiving emotions. By providing feedback on the accuracy of emotion identification based on photographs of facial expressions, participants in Elfenbein's project significantly improved later emotion identification. Reilly (2005) provided anecdotal evidence of the utility of negotiations role-playing scenarios for giving law students an opportunity to practice their emotion management skills. Results of Reilly's work show that, following training, students demonstrated evidence of improved emotion management skills.

The research on EI and emotion regulation has a number of implications for the development of emotion management training. First, managing emotions does not simply imply suppressing or ignoring emotions. In certain situations, suppression is appropriate, while in others the expression of emotions is a better strategy. The number of different strategies applicable in any situation implies that training developed for emotion management needs to focus on increasing understanding of emotional triggers (i.e., specific events that cause an emotional reaction), emotional situations, and other emotional processes, so an individual can select the most appropriate strategy for the situation at hand. Thus, increasing knowledge about emotions and emotion processes is likely an important starting point in training.

Second, not all emotional processes are under an individual's conscious control, thereby limiting the trainability of these processes. Training for emotion management needs to focus on raising conscious awareness of some of the processes that occur more automatically, such as physiological arousal. Increasing an individual's awareness of different emotional processes is the first step to increasing their capability to consciously control these processes.

Third, as with other types of training, stable individual differences will likely play a role in the development of emotion-related skills. Some individuals will learn more, learn faster, and improve more overall compared to others. Personality could influence behaviors and strategies used in an emotionally laden situation (John & Gross, 2007) through selective awareness of and preference for some strategies over others.

Finally, it is clear that much work remains with regard to understanding the relationships between emotion regulation and different aspects of job performance (Gross, 2007). There is a lack of research on how to effectively develop emotion management, and which management strategies are most effective. Given this, training should focus first on increasing basic emotion-related knowledge and vocabulary. The training should provide practice with a variety of emotion-related skills, including increasing the accurate perception of emotions in others, regulating one's own and others' emotions, and tailoring emotional expression as part of goal-directed behavior in specific situations. This base will allow individuals to adapt to a variety of performance contexts and use emotion management effectively to achieve desired goals.

Model Development

Developing the present model of emotion management involved a number of steps to ensure coverage of the relevant construct. These steps included:

- Reviewing emotional intelligence, emotion regulation, and emotional expression literature
- Identifying knowledge and skills directly relevant to emotion management
- Identifying aspects of leader performance in which emotion management might be important
- Considering trainability of emotion management knowledge and skills
- Identifying individual, situational, and training transfer moderators potentially influencing the acquisition of and need for emotion management knowledge and skills
- Developing initial model and construct definition
- Model review by Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) in emotions, leadership, and military leadership
- Revising model based on SME input

The final model is shown in Figure 1. Each set of dimensions and subdimensions is described in detail in the sections that follow.

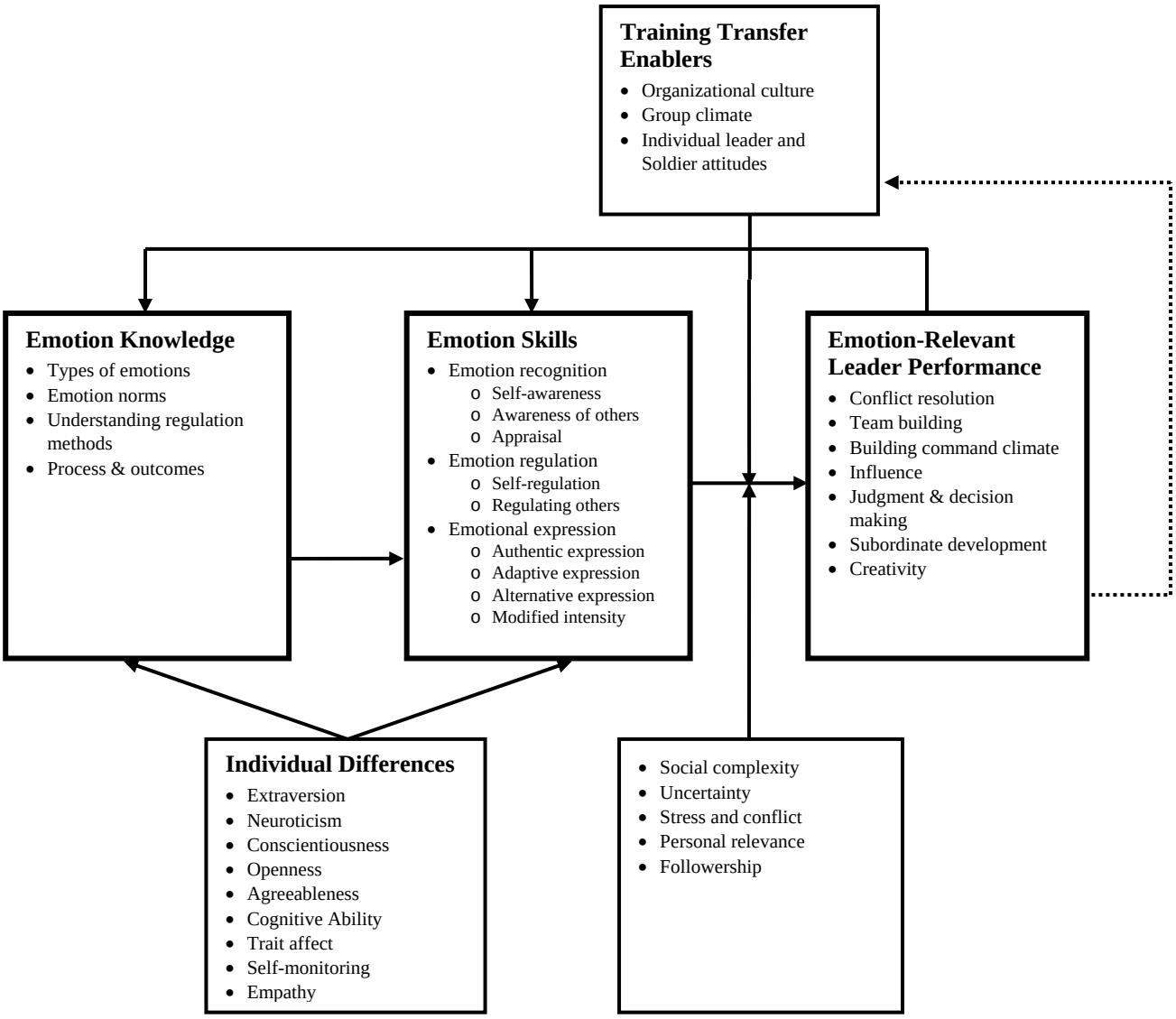

Figure 1. Model of emotion management for leaders. Boxes outlined in bold represent model components that should be focused on in a training context; non-bolded model components are relevant to emotion management, but are less suitable to incorporate into training.

Emotion Knowledge

The model specifies emotion knowledge as the first component. Several theories of emotion and EI indicated the importance of emotion knowledge, or a basic understanding of emotions (e.g., Izard 1971; Izard, Fine, Schultz, Mostow, Ackerman, & Younstrom, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The present model identifies four aspects of emotion knowledge critical to emotion management, including types of emotions, emotion norms, regulation methods, and processes and outcomes of emotions.

Knowledge of types of emotions. The first aspect of knowledge involves a basic understanding of the different types of emotions, their experience and meaning. Salovey and Mayer (1990) indicated that a key element of EI includes understanding and labeling one's own emotions, or, those one perceives in others. While the perception of facial expressions depicting specific emotions is included in the MSCEIT, their theory does not articulate the possible ways of labeling and differentiating general affect, discrete emotions, mood, emotion episodes, and other types of emotional experiences. For example, Frijda (1993) indicates that moods are distinguished from emotions by generally being less intense, longer in duration, and lacking a specific trigger. Emotions are characterized by subjective experience (e.g., feeling good), cognitive appraisal or interpretation of the event/circumstances triggering the emotion, physiological changes, and action readiness.

Additionally, providing individuals with a framework such as that developed by Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, and O'Connor (1987) would also help leaders to develop a more complex vocabulary for emotion and to build emotion knowledge. Within this taxonomy six basic emotions are identified: love, joy, anger, sadness, fear, and surprise. Blends or co-occurrences of these different emotions comprise lower levels of a hierarchy reflecting a variety of common but complex feelings such as hurt, disappointment, boredom, shame, and regret. Being able to better differentiate between emotions and blends of emotions is important to emotional awareness (Lane & Schwartz, 1987). Other research suggests that two emotions can occur either at the same time or in close succession (Izard, 1972; Tomkins, 1962). For example, an event can trigger an initial or primary emotion (e.g., anger regarding unreasonable demands from one's supervisor) and subsequently the experience of the primary emotion triggers a secondary emotion (e.g., shame or guilt about feeling angry at one's supervisor). Riggio and Lee (2007) also note that part of building adequate knowledge of emotions involves understanding the progression of emotions over time.

Ekman and colleagues have also done extensive research on emotions, revealing alternative viable approaches to categorizing and describing emotions (Ekman, 1997, 1999; Ekman & Davidson, 1994; Keltner & Ekman, 2003). Ekman's research has supported the universality of emotion perception. He has shown that people from many different cultures accurately recognize facial expressions of anger, sadness, happiness, surprise, fear, and disgust. While there is no one agreed upon taxonomy, there is considerable overlap in how emotion scholars think about discrete emotions. The model presented here proposes that providing individuals with information on types of emotions and the nature of emotions will positively influence the individual acquiring emotions skills and ultimately their performance in emotion-relevant leader performance domains.

Knowledge of emotion norms. Understanding emotion norms is also important. Emotions occur in context. In any given situation, certain emotions are appropriate to display, at certain levels of intensity, while others are not. Additionally, emotions can be interpreted differently in different contexts. Thus, knowledge of emotion norms and display rules for the situation in which one is operating is critical. Display rules represent specific instances of what is acceptable conduct that demonstrates a broader norm. Several extant models included dimensions related to norms and display rules. Specifically, Izard's (1971; Izard et al., 2001) model of emotion knowledge incorporated understanding norms for feeling specific emotions, such as anger or fear. Evidence for the relationship between managing emotions and perceptions of display rules comes from the work of Austin, Dore, and O'Donovan (2008). Results of their empirical investigation indicated that individuals better at managing emotions perceived more positive display rules than did those less skilled in managing emotions. This is true not only for organizational norms regarding emotional displays, but also cultural norms (Saarni, 1990). Leader emotional displays are important because they can communicate different display rules to their followers that will influence follower emotion regulation and expression (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005).

Knowledge of regulation methods. The third aspect of emotion knowledge held to be important to emotion management is an understanding of different regulation methods and strategies along with the potential benefits and drawbacks to each strategy. Gross's (1998) model of emotion regulation outlined five different categories of strategies that could be employed. Understanding specific techniques and strategies within these categories and what they entail should help individuals in choosing which strategy to use. Additionally, understanding the consequences and outcomes of using strategies should aid in selecting strategies. For example, attempting to eliminate or suppress emotions tends to raise cortisol and stress levels, resulting in negative consequences on an individual's physical health over time (Levenson, 1994). Alternatively, cognitive reappraisal demands greater attention and processing capacity, resources that are not always readily available in cognitively complex situations or during a crisis. By developing an understanding of the different regulation strategies, the situations that call for particular strategies, and their likely consequences, individuals are likely to be better able to manage their emotions and in particular engage in self-regulation.

Knowledge of emotion processes and outcomes. The fourth component of emotion knowledge is an understanding of emotion processes and outcomes. Indeed, Lopes et al. (2006) suggested that to manage emotions effectively one must first have knowledge of emotional processes. Knowledge of the emotion process includes understanding the causes, progression, experience, and potential outcomes associated with emotional experiences. Emotion researchers characterize emotional experience as being comprised of physiological, cognitive, and behavioral elements (Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Gross, 1998; Thompson, 1994). Understanding what physical sensations might be associated with experiencing emotion (e.g., increased pulse, flushed skin, fatigue) can provide valuable information for accurately identifying the emotions one might be experiencing.

Cognitive appraisal theories of emotion have suggested that emotional experiences are based on the appraisal, evaluation, and interpretation of events (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988; Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990; Scherer, 1988; Smith &

Ellsworth, 1985; Smith & Pope, 1992). Initially, a primary assessment is made to determine whether the event is good or bad with respect to goals and values, resulting in a general positive or negative feeling about an event or emotional trigger. A secondary appraisal examines the context surrounding the event with regard to factors such as the degree of personal control, coping potential, consequences of the event, and future expectations about the situation, resulting in the experience of more specific emotions such as anger, happiness, or fear. While there is no one agreed upon list of appraisal dimensions, cognitive appraisal theories agree that different patterns of appraisals are associated with different discrete emotion states (Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999).

Izard (1971; Izard et al., 2001) discussed in his model of emotional knowledge the importance of identifying the causes or activators of emotions in oneself and others. While this component of Izard's model tends to resemble a skill, this is relevant to emotion knowledge. In order to effectively identify causes and activators of emotions (a skill), understanding that certain events, situations, or issues might cause or activate emotions should help individuals develop this skill. Izard's model also emphasizes relationships among emotion, motivation, and behavior. More generally, this idea emphasizes the importance of understanding the outcomes associated with emotions, both behaviorally and in terms of motivation. For instance, understanding that displaying anger could elicit a specific reaction in one's audience such as fear, guilt, or even reciprocated anger (Riggio & Lee, 2007) enables leaders to motivate Soldiers in different ways to achieve objectives in combat situations. Along these lines, Saarni (1990) proposed that understanding the potential outcomes of emotions is important to emotional competence. More specifically, it is suggested that to manage emotions effectively, understanding how one's emotional behavior influences others is key. The construct of emotional contagion in a leadership context represents how followers observe a leader's emotional expression and subsequently, experience or "catch" the same emotion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Leaders must understand how emotional contagion can influence their followers. The last part of this aspect of emotion knowledge involves understanding how emotions change over time, sometimes creating an emotional chain reaction (Lopes et al., 2006). This progression of emotions over time can influence how the emotion might be managed effectively.

The question as to whether emotion knowledge can be trained should also be considered. Lopes et al. (2006) discussed how understanding of emotions can be trained in a number of ways including discussing similarities and differences among emotions and triggers of emotions. Additionally, these researchers suggest that explicit discussion during training can facilitate understanding of emotion processes such as cognitive appraisal tendencies and emotion episodes. Along similar lines, other researchers have discussed how clarifying unspoken rules or norms for social interaction in the workplace might facilitate learning (Sternberg et al., 2000; Sternberg & Hedlund, 2002; Wagner & Sternberg, 1985). Others have proposed that individuals develop understanding of emotion norms within an organization in a number of ways, including training (Domagalski, 1999; Opengart, 2005).

Proposition 1: Emotion knowledge can be developed through training in order to improve emotion management.

The declarative type of emotion knowledge discussed above serves as the basis for developing higher order skills (Ackerman, 1987; Anderson, 1982). These skills are articulated in the next section.

Emotion Skills

The second core component of the proposed model of emotion management seen in Figure 1 is emotion skills. Inherent in the term "emotion management" is that certain aspects of emotional experience are able to be manipulated or controlled through various cognitive and behavioral strategies. Emotionally skilled individuals are likely to more easily access and use such strategies Emotion skills in the model fall into three general groupings—emotion recognition, emotion regulation, and emotional expression.

Emotion recognition.

Self-awareness. Developing the capacity to recognize emotions one is experiencing is a common theme in many models related to emotion management. Both Dulewicz and Higgs (1999, 2000), and Goleman (1995) included a dimension in their models of EI labeled "self-awareness". Bar-On's (1997, 2006) model of EI also includes an emotional self-awareness aspect under the "intrapersonal" dimension. Emotion theorists have also incorporated constructs related to self-awareness in their models, including Feldman (e.g., knowing one's self; 1999), Izard (e.g., recognize and label one's own emotions in varying circumstances; 1971; Izard et al, 2001), Lane and Schwartz (e.g., emotional awareness of self; 1987; Lane, Quinlan, Schwartz, & Walker, 1990), and Saarni (e.g., awareness of one's own emotional state; 1990). All of these models speak to the importance of accurately recognizing the emotions that one is experiencing.

Awareness of others. Recognizing others' emotions is also important to emotion management. Salovey and Mayer (1990) discussed the importance of perceiving emotions in oneself as well as in others. Jones and Rittman (2002) suggested that considering one's own emotional responses along with situational cues helps in interpreting others' emotional displays. Izard (1971; Izard et al., 2001) suggested in his model that it is essential to accurately perceive emotion signals in expressions, behaviors, and various contexts. Additionally, Feldman (1999) and Saarni (1990) indicated that reading others and detecting their emotions is critical for leaders. Thus, the model in Figure 1 highlights emotion awareness in others apart from self-awareness because the implications for training will likely be different.

Appraisal. Emotion appraisal, or the evaluation and interpretation of emotional responses, is also a key skill. Recognizing and decoding emotional information helps one appraise threats and opportunities in situations (Lopes et al., 2006) which in turn influences one's own emotional reaction (Gross, 1998; Ochsner, Bunge, Gross, & Gabrieli, 2002; Ochsner et al., 2004). By appraising the situation an individual can understand emotions perceived in others more accurately. Feldman (1999) differentiates between knowing oneself, reading others, and accurately appraising emotions. The latter involves attaching meaning and interpretation to the recognized emotion. For example, recognizing that another individual is angry alone does little to tell one how to respond. Only after understanding why the person is angry can a leader

develop an appropriate response. Therefore, part of emotion recognition is attempting to understand, explain, and establish meaning in recognized emotions, in light of the situation.

Emotion recognition can be positively influenced by emotion knowledge. In order to articulate emotions, one must first have a basic knowledge of the nature of emotions. Taylor (1985) argued that articulation of emotions can increase self-awareness and that emotional experience can be determined or shaped by one's understanding of emotions. Similarly, knowledge of common emotion cues and triggers should help in deducing what emotions others are experiencing and attaching meaning to these recognized emotions (Sander, Grandjean, Kaiser, Wehrle, & Scherer, 2007). To assess what emotions others are experiencing and then to interpret the meaning and reason behind that emotion is difficult, if not impossible, without having contextual knowledge about emotions in the organization (Opengart, 2005). This contextual knowledge includes emotion norms and display rules. Based on this review of the literature it appears that increasing one's knowledge of emotions should enhance emotional awareness, ultimately boosting one's skill in emotion recognition.

Proposition 2: Emotion recognition will be facilitated by emotion knowledge.

Inclusion of emotion recognition in the present model is important because this skill is capable of being trained. Lopes et al. (2006) and others have noted that people can be trained to accurately recognize emotions. This research suggests several possible things to emphasize in training:

- Provide practice reading facial displays to identify and recognize expressions of emotions in real life
- Provide practice attending to emotional cues and non-verbal behavior to decode emotions (Elfenbein, 2006; Frank & Feeley, 2003)
- Ensure deliberate and extensive practice given the small effect sizes seen in the few investigations on these training methods (Riggio & Lee, 2007)

Proposition 3: Emotion recognition can be developed through training in order to improve emotion management.

Emotion regulation. The second skill of interest to emotion management is emotion regulation. This particular skill has two sub-dimensions: self-regulation and regulation of others' emotions.

Self-regulation. Self-regulation involves using strategies to regulate one's emotional experience. This component of the proposed model is mostly drawn from theories of emotion regulation. Gross's (1998) model in particular, appears to be the most useful in describing specific strategies individuals can use to regulate their emotions. These strategies include 1) situation selection, 2) situation modification, 3) attention deployment (distraction, concentration, rumination) 4) cognitive change (defense mechanisms—denial, isolation, intellectualization, overly positive view of situation, downward social comparison, reappraisal), and 5) response modulation (suppression, enhanced expression, exercise, relaxation, drugs, food). While individuals sometimes apply these strategies subconsciously, training might help to raise

awareness of the strategies one tends to use and might enable more conscious application of a broader array of strategies. Apart from emotion regulation theories, other models related to emotion management also indicate that self-regulation is important. More specifically, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model of EI included emotion management, which involved modulating the experience and expression of emotions for both oneself and others to accomplish goals.

Regulating others. Regulating others' emotions is another aspect of emotion regulation that appears particularly important for leaders. Assisting others with regulation of their emotions is discussed in emotion management-related models. Many of Gross's (1998) strategies also apply to regulating others' emotions. Wolff, Druskat, Koman, and Messer (2006) included a dimension of managing group members' emotions, suggesting that by being proactive in problem solving, ensuring availability of resources for working through emotions, and creating a climate that is optimistic, individuals will be better equipped to regulate others' emotions. Although relatively few models related to emotion management directly discuss emotion regulation in others, this component is held to be critical in the current model which seeks to explain emotion management in a leadership context, where influencing and managing others is a critical part of what leaders do.

Having a strong knowledge of emotions should help in developing emotion regulation skills. Lopes et al. (2006) argued that having a thorough knowledge of emotion processes should help when making judgments about likely responses others' might have, which could certainly help with the management or regulation of others' emotions. Also, being aware of situational influences on emotions and the dynamic nature of emotions is important for adaptive emotion regulation (Lopes et al., 2006). Lastly, understanding emotion regulation strategies should help in regulating one's emotions.

Proposition 4: Emotion regulation will be facilitated by emotion knowledge.

The trainability of emotion regulation has been discussed by some researchers. Lopes et al. (2006) offered suggestions for how training might broaden the regulation strategy repertoires of individuals:

- Give individuals the opportunity to apply new strategies in a training environment.
- Encourage perspective taking to facilitate the perception and regulation of others' emotions
- Use appraisals to guide choice of antecedent or response-focused regulation strategies
- Reinforce deliberative effort and repeated practice to enhance or counteract subconscious regulation tendencies

Due to the fact that emotion regulation sometime occurs without conscious awareness, training these skills may be more difficult than developing emotion-related knowledge. However, improvements might be seen by increasing awareness of the particular strategies available and a self-assessment of what strategies are often used. Bearing these considerations in mind, programs might be developed to enhance this emotion skill.

Proposition 5: Emotion regulation can be developed through training in order to improve emotion management.

Emotional expression. Expressing emotions has been discussed in the emotional expression and emotion display literatures, but largely ignored in other emotion management-related models, such as EI. This skill is particularly important to emotion management for leaders as recent evidence suggests that managers are required as part of their role to display or hide emotions (Clarke, Hope-Hailey, & Kelliher, 2007) and that leader displays of emotion impact subordinate perceptions and performance (Connelly & Ruark, in press; Waples & Connelly, 2008). Emotions can be expressed in a number of ways, such as authentic expression, adaptive expression, alternative expression, and modified intensity.

Authentic expression. Authentic expression involves expressing the emotion as it is felt. Ekman and Friesen (1969, 1975) included this type of emotional expression in their model of expression management. This form of expression can be beneficial given that emotions are often sources of information about given situations. For instance, if a leader expresses negative emotions when providing negative performance feedback, the consistency of both the message and emotion provides clarity for followers, and potentially highlights the level of seriousness of the performance deficiency. Some research has shown that inconsistency between feedback content and valence of a leader's emotional expression results in poorer evaluations of the leader and less responsiveness to the feedback (Gaddis, Connelly & Mumford, 2004; Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Authentic expression of emotion might also facilitate the influence technique of authentic leadership such that the leader seeks to present a transparent picture of him or herself and true beliefs and values (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004).

Adaptive expression. Adaptive expression is similar to authentic expression in that the emotion displayed corresponds to the emotion that is felt but it is displayed in an adaptive, or more socially acceptable way. There may be situations in which it is acceptable, or even desirable that the felt emotion be displayed; however, there are display rules and norms in the organization that dictate the way in which an individual displays that emotion. For example, it might be acceptable for anger or frustration to be displayed within an organization; however, expressing the emotion in a conversational tone or filing a grievance might be more adaptive than shouting at (or about) the person (or event) causing the emotion. Typically expressing the emotion in some way is better than suppressing the experienced emotion altogether, as over time suppression can lead to adverse health consequences (Levenson, 1994).

Alternative expression. Contrary to authentic expression is the expression of an emotion that is different than the one felt. Much research on alternative emotional expression has delineated between expressing positive and expressing negative emotions (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Gross & John, 1997; King & Emmons, 1990). Despite the fact that negative emotional displays are sometimes beneficial (Sy et al., 2005) there is greater emphasis in the literature on expressing positive emotions in work environments over negative ones. Thus, when a negative emotion is experienced, the situation or work environment might require the expression of a positive emotion. For example, an Army officer deployed to another country might be angry about disruptive or insulting behavior by local residents, but use humor or friendliness in an attempt to turn the situation around. This would be considered alternative

expression under the current model's framework; that is, the emotion expressed is different than the emotion that is felt. It is important to note, however, that this type of expression can result in emotional strain, referred to in the literature as emotional labor or emotion work. It is fairly common for leaders to be put in situations requiring emotional labor (Clarke et al., 2007) as they might need to implement changes or take actions that they personally disagree with or they know will cause negative reactions. In these situations, leaders sometimes display emotions other than the ones they actually feel.

Modified intensity. Modifying the intensity of the experienced emotion is another strategy that individuals might employ for emotional expression. For instance, expressing a more heightened emotion than the one experienced, such as playing up one's anger to make a point with a subordinate (Lopes et al., 2006) falls under this modified intensity. Alternatively, one can also express a more diluted emotion than the one experienced, such as toning down one's happiness about a promotion when a colleague nearby did not get promoted (Lopes et al., 2006). This idea of modified intensity was discussed in Ekman and Friesen's (1969, 1975) expression management model labeled as amplifying and de-amplifying. According to Ekman and Friesen, extreme de-amplification could include suppression, where an emotion is de-amplified to the extent that it is not expressed at all.

Expressing emotions in an effective manner might be dependent on emotion knowledge. One type of knowledge potentially important to determining how an individual chooses to express felt emotions is knowledge of emotion norms and display rules (Opengart, 2005). These norms and display rules often dictate what and how emotions should be expressed. Furthermore, knowledge of emotion outcomes should help individuals determine appropriate emotional expression. Indeed, Lopes et al. (2006) suggested that understanding the consequences of emotions guides thinking and subsequent behavioral responses. It is clear that emotion knowledge is important in determining how to express one's emotions.

Proposition 6: Effective emotional expression will be facilitated by emotion knowledge.

The extent to which emotional expression is trainable is of interest in this effort. Training that incorporates knowledge about the different types of expression, are and when they are likely to be more or less effective, might be important (Callahan, Hasler, & Tolson, 2005). Research suggests the following training implications:

- Provide leaders with practice on adaptive expression of negative feelings. Suppressing negative emotions can be ineffective because if those negative feelings resurface, they can be harder to control (Baron, 1990; Wegner & Zanakos, 1994)
- Discuss potential short and long-term consequences of different forms of altering emotional expression on performance, workload, and health (Grandey, 2000)
- Identify which aspects of emotional expression may be most compatible with leaders' personalities (Gross, 1998)
- Have leaders reflect on and identify their own default patterns of emotional expression.
- Provide alternative situations where strategies are effective and ineffective (Lopes et al. 2006)

- Provide leaders feedback on emotional expression and how it might be perceived by others

Proposition 7: Effective emotional expression can be developed through training in order to improve emotion management.

Stable Individual Differences

It is expected that emotion management training will not be equally effective for all individuals and that some individuals will boost their emotion management knowledge and skill levels more than others. However, training might improve any given individual to some extent. Lopes et al. (2006) warned against making simplistic recommendations in emotion management training, instead encouraging consideration of individual differences. A number of stable individual difference variables in the training and development literature are related to general knowledge and skill acquisition, including cognitive ability, conscientiousness, and achievement motivation (Campbell, 1988; Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). Additionally, there are other stable individual difference variables that might influence emotion management training. More specifically, these individual differences (see Figure 1) are likely to play into the need for emotion management training, the degree to which a person will show improvement in emotion management skills, and the areas in which a person will improve with regard to emotion management. Accordingly, the model specifies a basic set of stable individual differences that might influence the development or expression of emotion-related capacities. These attributes are summarized in Table 3. Many of these capacities correlate positively with the emotion knowledge and skills previously discussed. Relevant research predominantly focuses on the extent to which these attributes correlate with manifest emotion management knowledge and skill constructs (self-report and performance based) and does not directly address how they might influence trainability of emotion management. It is plausible that individual differences such as openness to experience, extraversion, positive affectivity, and empathy might facilitate positive attitudes towards emotion management training, making leaders more receptive and willing to learn. Similarly, higher levels of conscientiousness and self-monitoring may enable greater gains from training than lower levels.

Having established the two core components of emotion management, emotion knowledge and emotional skills, as well as stable individual differences potentially relevant in the development and expression of emotional knowledge and skills, it was next critical to determine the performance areas in which emotion management might be particularly important to leaders.

Emotion Relevant Leader Performance

Leaders, and military leaders in particular, must perform effectively across a multitude of domains. Leaders regularly try to influence others toward accomplishing common goals (Yukl, 2006). This is manifested in a wide variety of day-to-day activities that range from managing conflicts to making judgments and decisions. Given the interpersonal nature, high stakes, and complexity of many leader responsibilities, the management of emotions can play a critical part in how leaders perform in these situations. This section examines aspects of effective leader

performance most likely to be influenced by effective emotion management. Additionally, the model reflects the idea that leader performance in emotion relevant domains has the potential to further develop emotion knowledge and skills. While this is not an exhaustive list of all aspects of leader performance, it reflects areas in which effective emotion management is critical, including resolving conflicts, team building, building a command climate, influencing others, judgment and decision making, creativity, and developing the emotion management skills of subordinates. These aspects of leadership behavior are consistent with the requirements of Army Leadership as described in the Field Manual (FM 6-22) and are listed in the performance component of the model in Figure 1.

Table 3
Relationships of Individual Differences to Emotion Management

Individual Differences	Citations	Nature of Relationship with Emotion Management
Big-5 Personality • Extraversion • Openness • Conscientiousness • Neuroticism • Agreeableness	Barchard & Hakstian (2004); Davies, Stankov, & Roberts (1998); Gross & John (1998, 2003); Izard (1977, 1989) Izard & Malatesta (1987); Kokkonen & Pulkkinen (2001); Larsen, Diener, & Emmons (1986); Luminet, Bagby, Wagner, Taylor, & Parker (1999) Malatesta, (1990)	• Extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, and agreeableness correlate positively with emotional recognition, expression and regulation • Neuroticism correlates negatively with emotional expression, recognition, and regulation
Trait Affect • Affect intensity • Positive affectivity • Negative affectivity	Barsade & Gibson (2007); Ben-Ze'ev (2002); John & Gross (2004); Larsen, Diener, & Cropanzano (1987); Larsen, Diener, & Emmons (1986)	• Affect intensity correlates positively with emotion recognition, emotion interpretation, emotion response (expression) • Affect intensity correlates negatively to emotion regulation • Positive affectivity correlates positively with cognitive reappraisal and negatively with suppression • Negative affectivity correlates negatively with cognitive reappraisal and positively with suppression
Cognitive ability	Barchard & Hakstian (2004); Ben-Ze'ev (2002); Brackett & Mayer (2003); Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2000); Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey (1999)	• Cognitive ability correlates positively with emotion knowledge • Verbal intelligence is positively related to emotion knowledge, emotion recognition, and emotion regulation
Self-monitoring	Gross & John (1998, 2003); Lennox & Wolfe (1984); Schutte, Malouff, Bobik, Coston, Greeson, Jedlicka, Rhodes, & Wendorf (2001); Snyder (1974)	• Self-monitoring correlates positively with perceiving emotions, understanding emotions, regulating and harnessing emotions, effective expression of positive and negative emotions, and reappraisal • Self-monitoring correlates negatively with suppression
Empathy	Hodgson & Wertheim (2007); Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth (2006); Ramos, Fernandez-Berrocal, & Extremera (2007); Schutte, Malouff, Bobik, Coston, Greeson, Jedlicka, Rhodes, & Wendorf (2001)	• Empathy correlates positively with emotion recognition, understanding emotions, regulating emotions in self and others, and appropriate emotional expression

Conflict management. The first area of effective leader performance in which emotion management is likely to prove critical is in the resolution of conflicts (FM 6-22). Conflict is certainly an emotion-evoking experience (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001), and leaders must not only manage their own emotional experience but also that of their subordinates and others involved in the conflict. In doing so they must engage in prevention, negotiation, and de-escalation behaviors. Recent work along these lines found that a team's emotional climate influenced the way in which team members reacted to conflict (Ayoko et al., 2008). Leaders can create a team climate in which there are norms for handling conflict and each others' emotions, thus preventing conflicts from escalating. Specifically, leaders can set the tone by creating rules and expectations of how conflict should be dealt with in the group and by indicating the importance of recognizing emotions, regulating them, and expressing them appropriately to prevent or de-escalate a conflict.

Despite a leader's attempts to prevent conflicts, conflicts often arise and leaders must engage in negotiation. It is clear that emotions are a key component of negotiation (Barry, 2008) and can influence the effectiveness of different negotiation techniques (Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2006). Along with negotiation, leaders might need to simply prevent a conflict from further escalation. For instance, Schroth, Bain-Chekal, and Caldwell (2005) evaluated triggers that elicit emotion responses during a conflict and indicated that effective leaders steered conversations away from certain triggers. Additionally, Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2004) found that the expression of different emotions by an opponent led to different conflict outcomes, a finding which might indicate that a leader skilled in emotion management and expression may perform more effectively in a conflict situation.

Proposition 8: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to leader performance in conflict situations, primarily through understanding emotion processes and outcomes, and skill in recognizing and regulating the emotions of others.

Team building. A second critical performance area for leaders, and military leaders in particular, is effective team building. Team building is a broad construct that encompasses several leadership behaviors. The team building behaviors and processes associated with effective, high performing teams (Marks, Sabella, Burke, & Zaccaro, 2002; Mathieu, Heffner, Goodwin, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 2000) that might also be influenced by emotion management are developing a shared mental model, coordination within the group, increasing cohesion, establishing trusting relationships within the team, and improving team morale. Theoretical and empirical research on the relevance of emotional states and emotional displays for team building is summarized in Table 4. These relationships imply the importance of emotion knowledge and skills for effective team building.

Proposition 9: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to leader performance in team building via a positive relationship with the development of a shared mental model, coordination of team actions, building of cohesion, establishment of trust, and improvement of morale.

Table 4

Relationship of Emotions and Emotion Management to Team Building Behaviors and Processes

Team Building Dimensions	Citations	Nature of Relationship with Emotion Management
Developing a shared mental model	Smith, Murphy, & Coats, (1999); Sy, Côté, & Saavedra (2005)	• Developing a shared mental model is influenced in part by leaders communicating the emotional norms, emotional experiences, and emotional climate of the team through appropriate emotional displays
Intra-group coordination	Barsade (2002); Spoor & Kelly (2004); Sy et al. (2005)	• Positive and negative emotional displays are laden with information and have the potential to facilitate quick communication and coordination in a team • An overall positive affective state in teams facilitates cooperation and lessens conflict compared to a negative affective state
Building cohesion	Lawler, Thye, & Yoon, (2000); Spoor & Kelly (2004)	• An overall positive affective state in teams is positively related to cohesion
Establishing trust	Dirks (2000); Jones & George (1998); Waples & Connelly (2008)	• Perceptions of trust in team members and the leader are influenced by affective experiences in the team • Positive and negative emotional displays can increase trust in the leader under some circumstances
Improving morale	Bono & Ilies (2006); Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, & LePine (2008); Johnson (2008)	• Positive emotional displays by the leader lead to positive affect in followers through emotional contagion

Building command climate. Another aspect of leader performance influenced by emotions is the establishment of a command climate (FM 6-22). Command climate is defined by Lieutenant Joseph Doty and Major Joe Gelineau (2008) as a general business model or set of rules that a unit uses when conducting their work. Building an effective command climate includes several behaviors for which emotion-management is likely to be important. These include establishing group norms and expectations, communicating a vision, goal setting and feedback, building commitment, and establishing a positive emotional climate. It is proposed that training in emotion management will facilitate the establishment of an effective command climate. Table 5 summarizes theoretical and empirical literature linking emotion management to establishing and maintaining a command climate.

Proposition 10: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to leader performance in establishing an effective command climate by positively influencing the establishment of group norms and expectations, communication of a vision, establishment of specific goals, building of commitment, exchanging of feedback, establishment of a positive emotional climate, and obtaining of subordinate compliance.

Influence. The domain of behaviors most often associated with leadership is influence, something at the core of Army leadership (FM 6-22). Leaders, by definition, are individuals that influence others to do something (Yukl, 2006). There are a number of ways in which leaders influence others, and the effectiveness of several of these ways is related to emotion management. Four groups of influence behaviors proposed to be related to emotion management are motivation, persuasion, authentic leadership, and gaining compliance.

Table 5
Relationship of Emotions and Emotion Management to Building Command Climate

Building Command Climate Dimensions	Citations	Nature of Relationship with Emotions and Emotion Management
Establishing norms and expectations	Bartel & Saavedra (2000); George (2000)	• Leader knowledge and communication of emotion norms, processes and outcomes facilitates subordinate understanding and adherence • Leaders provide behavioral cues about appropriate emotional display rules
Communicating a vision	Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann, & Hirst (2002); Waples & Connelly (2008)	• Positive and negative emotional displays can facilitate leader communication of a vision • Emotionally evocative visions can be more strongly linked to follower beliefs and values
Building commitment	Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas (2007); Jones & George (1998)	• Positive emotional climate facilitates trust within a team and stronger commitment to the leader and team goals
Goal setting and feedback	Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford (2004); Ilies & Judge (2005)	• Leader affective displays moderate the effects of feedback based on goal type. Teams experiencing negative affect performed better when they had a prevention goals (don't fail) vs. promotion goals (do your best) • Leader displays of anger when providing feedback negatively impact perceptions of leader effectiveness and team performance • Positive feedback from leaders results in positive follower affect and subsequent setting of more challenging goals compared to negative feedback
Establishing positive emotional climate	Ashkanasy & Daus (2002); Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann, & Hirst (2002)	• Visions communicating the value of emotion management skills can build a healthy emotional climate • Positive emotional climate facilitates team performance in the face of negative events

Emotion management is related to leaders motivating followers to perform via the effect that individuals' affective states have on their motivation to accomplish goals. Specifically, individuals experiencing positive mood states are more likely to perceive a clearer connection between their performance and outcomes and to appraise potential outcomes of their behavior as more desirable. Thus, an individual's emotional state is related to their motivation to perform (Erez & Isen, 2002). It seems, therefore, that leaders, knowledgeable of emotions and emotional processes, and skilled in emotion management, could increase the motivation of their subordinates through eliciting positive emotions and connecting emotions to potential outcomes.

Along similar lines, leaders who understand the processes and outcomes of emotions and are skilled in regulating and expressing emotions in an advantageous way would likely be more effective in persuading subordinates to engage in tasks or commit to efforts. For example, Haddock, Maio, Arnold, and Huskinson (2008) found that individual differences in need for affect or need for cognition influenced how receptive individuals were to different types of persuasive messages. More specifically, the effectiveness of messages using affective

information relative to cognitive information depended on the individual's motivation to approach or avoid emotion inducing situations. Thus, leaders who have knowledge of emotion (.e.g., triggers, processes, and outcomes) and knowledge about the emotionality of their subordinates will be able to appropriately tailor their persuasive approach. For subordinates who respond to affective information, the leader can display more emotional intensity in communicating key information. For subordinates who tend to avoid emotional situations, the leader can communicate with less emotional intensity, focus instead on the complexities and challenges embedded in the information being communicated.

Another form of leader influence related to emotion management occurs through authentic leadership. Leaders acting in an authentic way are those that behave transparently such that their behaviors are clearly consistent with their held beliefs and values (Avolio et al., 2004). Expression of emotions can serve as a source of information about an individual's beliefs and values and can help develop perceptions of authentic leadership. Additionally, Avolio et al. (2004) proposed that authentic leadership positively affects subordinates' personal identification with the leader and social identification with one another which, in turn, leads to positive emotions of team members. Thus, emotional knowledge and emotion management skills, and emotional expression in particular, would likely be positively related to leader influence through authentic leadership, and in turn, authentic leadership can have a positive influence on the emotional climate of the group.

Another aspect of influence potentially related to emotions is obtaining subordinate compliance. Compliance represents subordinates' contribution and dedication to a group or organization beyond the required exchange of work for outcomes (e.g., salary; Charbonneau & Nicol, 2002). Specifically, individuals are more engaged and aligned with the goals of the organization and understand how their actions, or inaction, can influence group and organizational outcomes. For instance, they might refrain from taking longer than normal breaks, or from taking unnecessary time off because of their commitment to the group or organization's work. Compliance of subordinates is particularly important in the military where there are strong interdependencies between team members. In research along these lines, Charbonneau and Nicol (2002) found a positive relationship between individuals' emotional skills and their compliance behaviors. Findings from an investigation by Carmeli and Josman (2006) also demonstrate support for this positive relationship. Thus, it appears that it is beneficial for leaders to develop the emotion management of subordinates in an effort to increase compliance.

Proposition 11: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to leader performance in influencing others via a positive relationship with motivating and persuading others and with authentic leadership behaviors.

Judgment and decision making. Much of the work done by leaders involves making sound judgments or decisions on behalf of the team or the organization (FM 6-22). There are many things that can influence judgment and decision making, such as problem complexity or criticality of outcomes. Although emotions have been found to influence decision making for both leaders and non-leaders, the complexity and profile of the decisions that leaders must face likely make the role that emotions play even more pronounced. Three general types of decisions or problem solving that leaders engage in that are influenced by emotions include decisions

regarding risk assessments, ethical decision making, and social judgments. Table 6 summarizes research on how emotions and emotion management can influence judgment and decision-making.

Table 6
Relationship of Emotions and Emotion Management to Judgment and Decision-making

Judgment and Decision-making Dimensions	Citations	Nature of Relationship with Emotions and Emotion Management
Risk assessment	Isen & Geva (1987); Isen & Labroo (2003); Mittal & Ross (1998); Thompson, Cowan, & Rosenhan (1980)	• People in a negative moods see more threat, less opportunity in situations than people in a positive mood; • Risk taking increases as stakes of choice increase relative to positive mood
Ethical decision-making	Ashkanazy & Zerbe (2005); Connelly, Helton-Fauth, & Mumford (2004); De Hoogh & Den Hartog (2008); Gaudine & Thorne (2001)	• Positive and negative emotions serve as signals for when ethical dilemmas are occurring • Empathy is positively related to ethical decision-making • Activation potential of emotions is positively related to ethical decision-making
Social judgments	Ashkanasy & Zerbe (2005); Grawitch & Munz (2005)	• Emotions play a role in framing social situations and interpersonal interactions • Interactions where strong emotions are present influence subsequent interactions in similar situations

Proposition 12: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to leaders' judgment and decision-making by positively influencing decisions regarding risk assessments, ethical decision-making, and social judgments.

Creativity. Leaders of complex and ambiguous efforts, which are characteristics of many military operations, will often be faced by novel challenges for which they do not have an established solution. Rather, the leader must develop a unique solution to the given problem. Creativity is the process of developing a solution that is both unique and appropriate to the given problem (Mumford & Gustafson, 1988). Creative problem solving could be an action that the leader engages in or that the leader fosters among subordinates. In either condition, however, emotions can influence creative processes and outcomes.

Research has indicated that both positive and negative affect can be beneficial to an individual's creative thought processes. On one hand, research has shown positive affect to facilitate exploration of procedures and possibilities in solving problems (Russ, 1993), insightful solutions (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987), ideational fluency (Abele, 1992; Isen, 2003), and managerial problem solving (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Alternatively, other research has shown that negative affect facilitates certain aspects of creative problem solving, such as information search (Martin, Achee, Ward, & Harlow, 1993) and systematic processing (Mackie & Worth, 1991). Additionally, task structure and affective valence of the material relevant to solving the problem moderates the extent to which positive and negative affect facilitate creative problem solving.

Additionally, there is evidence to indicate that emotions are also relevant for creativity at the team level. When team climate is supportive and psychologically safe (i.e., individuals feel

that they can contribute their ideas without being unnecessarily criticized), teams are able to be creative and innovate (Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2007). It would seem, then, that to foster creative problem solving at the team level the leader must demonstrate and encourage the engagement in emotion management as creative ideas are being generated. Thus, to encourage or foster creative problem solving both for individuals and the team, leaders need to be aware of the influence of emotions on creativity and tailor their leadership style accordingly to foster positive or negative emotions as needed.

Proposition 13: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to a leaders' creativity and the creative problem solving of their subordinates.

Subordinate development. The final leader performance domain related to emotion management is a leader's development of his or her subordinates' emotion management skills. It is not surprising that a leader's effective demonstration of emotion management would be related to subordinates' emotion management via role modeling (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002) or emotional contagion (Bono & Ilies, 2006). The present model also considers ways in which the leader can engage in explicit development of emotion management knowledge and skills. One example of subordinate development comes from work by Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) who encouraged leaders to train their subordinates on how to express emotions in a healthy way and on how to recognize negative emotional states (e.g., burnout).

When developing subordinates, effective leaders must be able to convey both positive and negative feedback in a way that will improve subsequent subordinate performance and maintain a good working relationship. An important foundation of this is creating a positive environment for learning (FM 6-22). Effective emotion management is likely to influence subordinate perceptions of interpersonal justice (Baron, 1990). Viewing leader communication as open and candid is also reflective of effective emotion management. Additionally, leaders can get to know their subordinates better in a positive environment, enabling them to obtain a more accurate picture of strengths and developmental needs. Establishing a positive command climate when situational pressures and stress are low enables leaders to build relationships that will benefit group cohesion and performance during times when a unit is embedded in negative environments, such as combat situations. How leaders respond to negative environments is critical to maintaining a positive command climate. They may not be able to change the realities of a negative atmosphere such as combat, but can role model constructive ways of dealing with it.

Thus far it is proposed that developing leaders' emotion knowledge and emotional skills will lead to more effective leader performance within emotion-related domains. Not only is knowledge of emotions and emotional skills critical for leader performance but it is also critical for subordinate development. Therefore, it is anticipated that leaders who have knowledge of emotions and emotion management skills can develop their subordinates such that they too are knowledgeable and skilled with regard to emotion management. This proposition is particularly relevant in the military context where all members of the team behave as leaders to some degree (e.g., within a community receiving military aide) or are expected to assume a formal leadership role at a moment's notice. Thus, it is important to the overall performance of the group that leaders take steps to develop their subordinates' emotional knowledge and emotional skills.

Proposition 14: Emotion knowledge and emotional skills will be positively related to a leader's development of his/her subordinate's emotion knowledge and emotion management skills.

Each of the aforementioned aspects of emotion relevant performance domains has the potential to help leaders develop additional emotion knowledge and skills. Positive feedback and outcomes may signal that the leader's approach for handling the situation was appropriate. If he or she focused on recognizing and interpreting emotions of others in the situation and used a particular regulation strategy, then these skills will be reinforced and may be more likely to be used again. Alternatively, negative outcomes might result from lack of knowledge, misperceived emotional reactions and/or misuse of regulation strategies. This signals a need to further improve emotion-relevant knowledge and skills. However, it could also discourage a leader from future attempts to manage emotions. Accordingly, the model includes arrows from emotion relevant performance back to emotion knowledge and skills indicating the potential for such a feedback loop.

Situational Moderators

The relationship between emotion management and leader performance clearly does not exist in a vacuum. Rather, the relationship is influenced by several situational aspects known to be related to either emotions, leader performance, or both. The situation can moderate the effectiveness of different emotion management skills such that the extent to which skills are applicable depends on various situational factors. Additionally, an effective emotion management training program must include training on recognizing these situational factors and methods for tailoring emotion management to meet specific situational demands. As seen within the "Situational Moderators" component in Figure 1, five dimensions of situational characteristics have been identified that are likely to moderate, or influence, the effect that emotion management has on performance: the situation's social complexity, degree of uncertainty, stress and conflict, personal relevance to the individual, and characteristics of the leader's followers (e.g., competence and emotionality). There is not much direct empirical evidence for the moderating influence of these variables on the relationship between emotion management skills and leadership. However, Table 7 provides a summary of the theoretical and empirical relationships of these situational constructs to emotion management. Some discussion of how these variables might moderate the relationship of emotion skills and leader performance follows.

Social complexity. There are many sub-dimensions of social complexity that might increase the need for emotion management and/or influence the relationship between emotion management and aspects of performance. These include cultural values, social norms and emotional display rules, the amount and nature of interpersonal interaction, and the presence and amount of in-group conflict. When norms, values or display rules require emotional displays that are more constrained than leaders are used to (or more uninhibited), leaders may need to employ a wider range of emotion regulation strategies and encourage their subordinates to in order to successfully communicate and perform in a particular situation. Similarly, when conflict is present among members of a leader's unit, there is a greater need for emotion recognition and regulation.

Table 7

Relationships between Situational Variables and Emotion Management

Dimension	Citations	Nature of Moderating Relationship
Social complexity • Cultural values • Social norms & emotional display rules • Amount and nature of interpersonal interaction • Group conflict	Ayoko & Härtel (2002); Butler, Lee, & Gross (2007); Diefendorff & Richard (2003); Fok, Hui, Bond, Matsumoto, & Yoo (2008); Matsumoto, Yoo, Hirayama, & Petrova (2005); Wolff, Druskat, Koman, & Messer (2006)	• Individual with Western values versus Eastern (Asian) values had less effective social interaction after emotional suppression • Perceptions of display rules influence emotional displays, job satisfaction, and job performance • Greater interpersonal interaction requires more emotion management • Relationship distance and the public (vs. private) nature of interactions influence emotional displays
Uncertainty • Lack of personal control • Unpredictability • System or environment disruption/ change	Bartone (2006); Ortony, Clore, & Collins (1988); Paterson & Härtel (2002); Smith & Ellsworth (1985)	• Lack of control and uncertainty in the situation are associated with fear and anxiety • Lack of control, unclear command structure, and unclear mission are associated with increased Soldier stress • Uncertainty is associated with hope
Stress and Conflict • Combat • Group conflict • Situational stress	Ayoko & Härtel (2002); Judge, Colbert, & Ilies (2004); Reyes & Hicklin (2005)	• The complexity and dynamic nature of combat causes emotional stress at work and home • Emotional conflict within groups negatively affects emotional responses, social interactions, and group performance • Interpersonal disputes with Soldier units are a source of anger associated with deployment
Personal Relevance • Threat to well-being • Congruence of situation with desired goals • Congruence of situation with personal beliefs and values	Cropanzano, James & Konovsky (1993) Frijda (1993); Ohman (2000); Stein, Trabasso, & Liwag (1993)	• Personal threat increases the emotional salience of situations and emotion management requirements differ in nature and degree relative to low threat situations • The extent to which a situation blocks the attainment of individual or group goals will increase its emotional salience and need for emotion management • Incongruence of situational requirements with beliefs and values will increase emotional salience and need for emotion management
Followership • Follower emotional competence • Follower task competence	Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey (2002); Waples & Connelly (2008); Wolff, Druskat, Koman, & Messer (2006)	• Followers with high emotional competence react differently to leader displays of positive and negative emotions than those low in emotional competence • Emotional competence norms positively influence group performance • Low task competence requires more focus on task learning and less on emotion management; alternatively, negative affect might result from low task competence requiring increased emotion management

The relationship between these skills and performance domains such as building command climate or resolving conflict is likely to be stronger when conflict is high (versus low).

Uncertainty. Uncertainty is a second situational characteristic likely to influence the relationship between emotion management and performance. Specifically, the degree of personal control, unexpectedness, certainty of outcomes, and level of change/disruption will moderate the effect that emotion management has on performance. When personal control and certainty of outcomes are low, certain emotions such as anxiety and fear might be present with greater

intensity, requiring higher levels of emotional understanding, recognition and regulation for effective functioning. Unpredictability in the situation could lead to either pessimistic or optimistic assessments about what might happen. These emotional states are appropriate under some circumstances, but may need to be held in check in others. For example, leaders may want to suppress optimism in uncertain combat situations to prevent undue risk-taking (see Lerner & Keltner, 2000 for a discussion of emotions and risk taking). Finally, the negative emotions that often accompany disruption or change in organizational environments may increase the need for recognizing and managing one's own and others emotional reactions and behavior which may prevent adaptation to the change.

Stress and conflict. A third dimension of situational characteristics on which the relationship between emotion management and performance might vary is the degree to which the situation involves stress and conflict. Several sub-dimensions share overlap with each other, including whether there is combat, whether there is conflict within the group, and whether the situation is highly stressful. For example, military personnel in combat situations experience and must manage a range of strong emotions such as fear, anger, and anxiety. The complex, dynamic, and life-threatening nature of such situations makes them especially intense from an emotional standpoint.

Combat experience also may increase leaders' awareness of intense emotional states and the need for strategies to understand, manage, and use emotions to achieve desired goals. Combat experience might also make more salient the need to perform well in the emotion-relevant leader performance domains articulated in the model. Leaders and Soldiers who have faced multiple deployments, even if not directly involved in combat, are likely to experience more stress and therefore might require more frequent and effective emotion recognition and regulation strategies to be able to function effectively. Leaders under this type of stress who lack these skills may have much worse performance relative to others not experiencing this stress.

Personal relevance. Emotions are inherently personal and thus characteristics of a situation that increase personal relevance are likely to be more emotionally evocative and could alter the relationship between emotion management and performance. Three sub-dimensions of personal relevance could influence this relationship: threat to the individual's personal well-being, congruence of situational features with an individual's goals, and congruence of situational features with an individual's beliefs and values.

Followership. The final dimension of situational characteristics that have an influence on the relationship between emotion management and performance are the characteristics of the leader's followers. Just as leaders have influence on the behaviors of followers, so too do followers influence the behaviors of leaders (Yukl, 2006). For instance, the performance of a leader that must manage the emotions of a team that is emotionally stable will be different than the performance of a leader that must lead a team in which the emotionality of followers is more varied. Additionally, the skills and general competence of the team can play a role in the relative importance placed on managing emotions within the team. Specifically, if the team is relatively unskilled, it might be more important that the leader focus on developing competence in other areas before focusing on developing emotion management. However, a team characterized with lower degree of skill might also be more likely to experience emotionally evocative situations,

such as failing at a task. It is these two follower characteristics, emotional competence and task competence, which are proposed as the characteristics of followers that are most likely to influence a leader's performance in interpersonal or emotions-related domains.

Training Transfer Enablers

There are a variety of variables that can influence both the effectiveness of training emotion management and the transfer of the knowledge and skills trained to the work environment. As seen in Figure 1, training transfer enablers are conceptualized at three levels: the organization, the group, and the individual trainee. Generally, if the organization does not provide the necessary support, or if the group climate is not amenable to emotion management, training transfer will be less effective. Additionally, a receptive attitude towards the training from individuals participating will facilitate both learning and transfer. These dimensions can directly influence pre-training motivation to engage in training, motivation to learn and, motivation to transfer the learned knowledge and skills to the work environment, and, ultimately, the motivation to continue applying and developing their emotion knowledge and skills (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

Organizational culture. Given the influences emotions can have on organizational processes such as decision making, performance, turnover, or organizational citizenship behaviors (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), organizations have a vested interest in supporting the development of employee emotion management skills. Organizational culture reflects the values and norms of an organization (Schein, 1992). As such, it can influence the extent to which training efforts are perceived as valuable and desirable by the leadership elements being asked to support the training. Seyler, Holton, Bates, Burnett, and Carvalho (1998) found that encouraging the use of skills learned in training and peer and supervisor support were positively related to whether individuals who went through training were motivated to transfer what they learned to the job. This encouragement and support for learning and transfer of skills can be driven by an organization that values continuous learning (Kontoghiorghes, 2004). Organizations that view emotion management as important and that are supportive of efforts to improve it will be more likely to achieve positive outcomes from emotion management training. Additionally, it is important that the organization have a culture that is supportive of training, as is the case in the Army, so that members enter into training considering it a worthy endeavor and that the transfer of knowledge and skills will be supported when they return to the job (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). *Proposition 15:* The relationship between emotion knowledge and skills and performance will vary with regard to whether there is a supportive organizational culture towards emotion management training such that the relationship will be more positive if the organizational culture is supportive.

Group climate. Training research has indicated that a critical predictor of transfer is work group climate. Permission to immediately apply and share what was learned in training can influence the success of training transfer (Ford, Quinones, Sego, & Sorra, 1992; Rouillier & Goldstein, 1993). Additionally, positive or negative consequences for applying training on the job (e.g., reward or ridicule from peers or superiors) will influence subsequent attempts to transfer knowledge or skills learned in training (Ford et al., 1992). With regard to training emotion management, a positive emotional climate is likely to facilitate transfer because it will

influence perceived relevance of the training and acceptance of its application by other group members.

Proposition 16: The relationship between emotion knowledge and skills and performance will vary with regard to whether there is a supportive group climate towards emotion management training such that the relationship will be more positive if the group climate is supportive.

Individual attitudes. Finally, employee attitudes towards training influence what is learned in training and training transfer (Facteau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, & Kudisch, 1995). Research by Seyler et al. (1998) indicated that three attitudes in particular have positive influences on learning and transfer: the desire to learn, internal work motivation, and organizational commitment. Additionally, an individual's motivation to learn prior to training and motivation to transfer what they learned after training both influence the effectiveness of training programs (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009).

It is also important to consider individual attitudes towards emotion management training, particularly in a military context. Should individuals perceive emotions or emotion management as irrelevant to their performance, or out of alignment with their personal approach to leadership and work tasks, they will likely not be motivated to learn and apply the emotion management skills. Leaders can influence these attitudes by creating a positive emotional climate, participating in training themselves, and modeling behaviors that indicate the importance of considering and managing emotions (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Leaders who perceive their own emotion management skills to be strong (rightly or wrongly) could be persuaded to participate if emphasis is placed on how important and necessary this is for their subordinates.

Proposition 17: The relationship between emotion knowledge and skills and performance will vary with regard to whether the individual's attitudes are supportive towards emotion management training such that the relationship will be more positive if the individual's attitudes are supportive.

Additionally, it should be noted that several dimensions of leader performance can feed back and influence the training transfer enablers. This relationship is indicated in Figure 1. For instance, the leader's ability to establish a command climate will likely influence whether a climate exists that is supportive of emotion management, or the leader's demonstration of effective emotion management in the midst of a conflict could increase positive attitudes in groups or individuals towards emotion management training.

Prior Work on Training Emotion Management

In the course of developing the present model of emotion management existing emotion training programs were identified. These programs included both commercial training and experimental training found in the extant literature (e.g., Elfenbein, 2006). For the purposes of model development, these programs were evaluated using a number of different criteria including how the training was administered, the program's theoretical basis, and the extent to which the training covered components of the present model. The programs were also examined

for components not covered in the current model that could play a part in training emotion management.

Appendix A shows 22 emotion management training programs included in the evaluation—12 commercially available and 10 from the extant literature. Publicly available information (i.e., journal articles, company websites, and training documents) was gathered on each training program. It is important to keep in mind that some of the commercially available training programs release a limited amount of information to the public on the content of their program. Few of these programs detail the specific content of their training or provide samples of the program to the public. Most of the information gathered was produced by the authors of the training programs. Attending to this fact, members of our research team independently rated each program on the format, theoretical basis, and model coverage of the program. The majority of the researchers had to agree on the presence of a variable for it to be considered part of a training program.

Concerning the theoretical basis for the training programs evaluated, half of the programs had a basis in theory. Programs were rated on whether or not they cited a specific theorist or a specific theory of emotions. Appendix B provides an overview of the theoretical bases of the training programs. Of the programs identified for evaluation, only three of the 12 commercially available programs had a basis in theory. This indicates a serious lack of supporting research for the majority of emotion management training programs that are currently available, a problem noted in the extant literature (Riggio & Lee, 2007). As expected, nearly all of the training programs found in academic journal articles had a theoretical basis. It is unlikely that research on these training programs would be published without some kind of theoretical foundation. Of the theories of emotion referenced by the programs, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) ability-based theory of EI was most common. Goleman's (1995) mixed model of EI was the only other EI theory cited by the training programs.

Although the format across training programs varied, there were some common themes. Appendix C provides a summary of the training format and methods used. First, the majority of the programs focused on leaders; this was particularly true for commercially available programs, all of which focused on business professionals. A number of other programs were developed for training emotion management in medical professionals. Nearly all of these that were evaluated were completed by trainees on a voluntary basis. Most programs provided individualized feedback while only four provided feedback to groups of trainees. A wide variety of training techniques were used by the different programs including the use of group discussion, lecture, role-playing, simulation, and computer software. The number of sessions was highly variable although two sessions spread across two days was most common. Cost of training varied considerably, with some programs costing as little as $70 and others costing $2,400.

Evaluation designs are also summarized in Appendix D. The majority of programs found in research journals conducted post-test evaluations of effectiveness. Roughly half of the commercially available programs had some measure of training effectiveness. Only three of the programs, all from academic journals, evaluated trainee reactions to the training. This is a potentially critical oversight on the part of the developers of these programs. Trainee reactions can be used to help shape programs to be more effective and more attractive to a particular set of

trainees. Approximately one-third of the training programs tested training effectiveness by looking at use of training in work situations. This was done using either low fidelity (e.g., paper and pencil) or high fidelity (e.g., role playing) simulations of the trainee's job. Less than half of the training programs evaluated training effectiveness using a comparison group, the majority of which were found in the academic literature.

The last set of criteria used to evaluate the existing training programs was their coverage with the present model of emotion management. For a complete summary of the extant training programs overlap with the current model, see Appendix E. Complete descriptions of these programs are provided in Appendix F. Training on recognizing and regulating emotions was addressed by most training programs. This included recognizing and regulating emotions in oneself and others. Basic knowledge about emotions was also a common topic in the training programs. It is important to note that actual content of the training was rarely available thus, training programs claimed to include these elements of emotion management, but the extent to which these elements were covered is largely unknown. Though these three parts of the model appear to be fairly well covered by the training programs, the other five areas of the model were largely ignored. Only one program had training on the expression of emotions, one program included information on situational moderators, and four programs included information on the need for training transfer enablers. This lack of coverage indicates a narrow focus in the currently available training programs that likely limits their generalizability to military leadership settings.

Training Emotion Management

The purpose for developing this model of emotion management was to consider its potential for developing leader training. Each component was discussed in light of training and propositions were articulated accordingly. These propositions suggested that a training program based on the proposed model should focus on the development of emotion knowledge and emotion skills which are more amenable to development than stable individual differences. In addition, other components of the model – training transfer enablers, situational moderators, and performance areas, could be considered in the context of training but would not be trained, per se.

Situational moderators known to influence the relationship between emotion management and performance could be reviewed in training as critical knowledge of the full emotional context of events. For instance, leaders would learn the effect that the complexity or level of stress in a situation has on the management of emotions. Training transfer enablers are also critical to training such that they can influence the potential success of training interventions. It is not only important to ensure that the organization is supportive of the implementation of the training, but that the group is supportive of the implementation of training and that individuals are receptive to receiving the training. These training transfer dimensions might need to be established and monitored throughout the training process. Finally, performance areas relevant to emotions are important to consider in the development of training as these will be the conditions in which emotion management is utilized. Thus, training exercises should focus on these domains. For instance, training scenarios can focus on resolving conflicts or team building to demonstrate effective emotion management in these performance areas.

This type of training is amenable to a variety of learning venues, including a distributed learning environment. Emotion knowledge can be trained using a more traditional didactic online approach, while emotion skills are probably best trained using an interactive, technologically enhanced approach. A versatile program would enable the instructor vary the learning approach through the use of informative slides, questionnaires, quizzes, input-based lesson branching, simulation, and gaming approaches.

Conclusion

Managing emotions is critical to several aspects of effective leader performance, particularly in military contexts. The model of emotion management presented here integrates research on emotional intelligence, emotion regulation, and emotional expression, areas that have traditionally remained somewhat separate. This model advocates that knowledge concerning types of emotions, emotion norms, regulation methods, and emotion process and outcomes will facilitate emotion-related skills. These skills include emotion recognition, regulation, and expression. Emotion management is critical to leadership performance, particularly for certain aspects of performance, such as conflict resolution, team building, building a command climate, influence, judgment and decision making, and subordinate development. Furthermore, certain situations might increase the importance of emotion management skills, specifically, those that involve social complexity, uncertainty, conflict, personal relevance, and followership.

This emotion management model was developed for the purposes of training and developing leaders. Current training programs for emotion management constructs by and large lack a strong theoretical basis (Riggio & Lee, 2007). Generally, it is held that emotion management knowledge and skills can be learned and developed. However, it is important to note that certain individual differences, including personality, cognitive ability, trait affect, self-monitoring, and empathy could influence an individual's base level of knowledge and skills, and potentially the development of these skills. Thus, while emotion management training is still beneficial, it is unlikely to develop every leader in the same way and to the same degree. The effectiveness of such training is also contingent on organizational dimensions such as organizational culture as well as group and individual dimensions such as group climate, and individual attitudes. For example, if the organizational culture is unsupportive of emotion management training then the training might be less effective.

Several limitations of the present model have been described throughout the report, but should be noted here as well. Proposed relationships were kept at a basic level, as this is a preliminary model of emotion management. Thus, more complex relationships might exist, such as particular types of knowledge being related to particular skills or how exactly various individual differences facilitate or constrain training interventions. However, in order to develop a parsimonious model, certain complexities were considered less critical to for the purpose of this report. Future research can explore whether more complex relationships within the model are critical to understanding emotion management.

Additionally, the present report does not address how specific components of the model would be developed through training. It is likely that some aspects of the model are more trainable than others. There are a variety of specific methods and approaches that might be used

to train components of emotion management, both in organizational and counseling settings. Research is needed on the efficacy of different methodologies for training different aspects of emotion management knowledge and skills.

Third, it is unclear whether the type of computer-based or classroom training developed from the proposed model would be useful in addressing emotional disorders such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The model in this report focuses primarily on the day to day emotions encountered in a typical work environment and is not intended to encompass emotions that may be better addressed through mental health services. It is also uncertain whether emotion management training may cause a person to try to apply new strategies that make them uncomfortable or stressed when their existing mode(s) of regulating were adequate. However, there is still relatively little research indicating that one particular strategy is more effective than others across all situations. While people appear to have preferences in their emotion regulation strategies, they also appear to be able to use different strategies depending on the nature of the emotion eliciting situation (Davis, 2009). Training leaders on multiple types of strategies affords more possibilities when selecting the best response for a particular situation.

Notwithstanding these limitations, a useful model has been developed for the purpose of training Army leaders to enhance their skills in reading and responding to situations requiring emotion management. The proposed model offers a strong, integrative theoretical basis for developing a training program, one that would benefit Army leaders by instilling the necessary emotion knowledge and skills required for effective emotion management.

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Appendix A. **Existing Training Programs**

ID#	Training Program	Company/Author	Periodical
1.	Developing Your Emotional Intelligence	American Management Association	
2.	Leading with Emotional Intelligence	American Management Association	
3.	Emotional Intelligence Toolbox	Blair Consulting Group	
4.	Emotional Intelligence Training	Byron Stock & Associates	
5.	Emotional Competence Training	American Express	
6.	Emotional Intelligence Training	Equanimity	
7.	Emotional Intelligence at Work	H2 Training & Consultancy	
8.	Emotional Intelligence for Personal Leadership	Institute for Health and Human Potential	
9.	EQ In Action	Learning In Action	
10.	Four Branch EI	Mayer & Caruso	Ivey Business Journal
11.	EQ Leadership	Six Seconds Consulting	
12.	EQ Training	TalentSmart	
13.	Emotional Intelligence Leadership Training	Truenorth Leadership	
14.	Emotion Recognition Feedback Training	Elfenbein	Journal of Nonverbal Behavior
15.	Negotiations Training	Reilly	Negotiation Journal
16.	Micro-expressions Training Tool	Russell, Chu, & Phillips	British Journal of Clinical Psychology
17.	Point of View Writing	Shapiro, Rucker, Boker, & Lie	Education for Health
18.	Inservice Empathy Training	Ancel	Archives of Psychiatry Nursing
19.	Long Term Meditation Training	Nielsen & Kaszniak	Emotion
20.	Mindfulness Training	Ortner, Kilner, & Zelazo	Motivation and Emotion
21.	Processing Mode Training	Watkins, Moberly, & Moulds	Emotion
22.	Communication Skills Training	Winefield & Chur-Hansen	Medical Education

Appendix B. **Theoretical Basis of Existing Training Programs**

	Training Program[a]																					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
BASIS IN LITERATURE									✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
Underlying Theorist																						
Gross (1998)																						
Mayer & Salovey (1997)										✓					✓							
Goleman (1995)											✓											
Bar-On (2006)																						
Grandey (2000)																						
Other														✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Theoretical Framework																						
Emotion Regulation																						
Emotional Intelligence – Ability	✓									✓					✓							
Emotional Intelligence – Mixed		✓									✓											
Emotional Labor/Expression																						
Other									✓					✓		✓	✓					✓

Note[a] Numbers correspond to training program numbers presented in Appendix A.

Appendix C. Format and Methods for Existing Training Programs

	Training Program[a]																					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Number of Sessions	2	3					1	1-2	2			2				1	16	5		7	✓	2
Length of Sessions (in hours)									8			8						4		1.5		1.5
Cost Per Individual (U.S. dollars)	2000	2345	69						1100			2000										
Cost Per Hour									70			125										
Target Profession																						
Business	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓									
Medicine																	✓	✓				✓
Other														✓	✓	✓						
Focused on Leaders		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓									
Voluntary Participation	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Method of Delivery																						
Group Discussion				✓	✓	✓		✓	✓						✓		✓	✓		✓		✓
Lecture				✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓					✓	✓		✓		✓
Role play						✓	✓								✓		✓	✓				✓
Reading Literature			✓					✓	✓		✓	✓	✓				✓	✓			✓	✓
Simulation (alone)							✓	✓			✓			✓		✓			✓			
Other									✓				✓		✓		✓				✓	✓
Low Fidelity Practice			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓				✓		✓	✓	✓
High Fidelity Practice						✓	✓								✓		✓	✓				✓
Individualized Feedback				✓				✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓
Group Feedback								✓							✓			✓				✓

Note[a] Numbers correspond to training program numbers presented in Appendix A.

Appendix D. Evaluation of Existing Training Program Effectiveness

	Training Program[a]																				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Measurements/Tests																						
Outcomes - Immediate				✓				✓						✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Outcomes – Delayed				✓													✓		✓	✓		
Attitudes - Affective Reactions																		✓	✓		✓	
Attitudes - Utility Reactions																						✓
Attitudes - Motivation																						✓
Cognitive - Knowledge Test																						
Skills - Low Fidelity								✓						✓		✓				✓		
Skills - High Fidelity																	✓					✓
Skills – Typical																	✓		✓		✓	
Skills – Maximal								✓								✓			✓	✓		
Other				✓							✓											
Evaluation of Training																						
Conducted Post-Test				✓	✓			✓			✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Conducted Pre-Test				✓	✓						✓	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓
Control Group																						
No Training					✓														✓	✓		
Alternative Training																					✓	
Placebo Intervention																	✓					
Other																✓						
Random Assignment														✓			✓			✓	✓	

Note[a] Numbers correspond to training program numbers presented in Appendix A.

Appendix E. Coverage of Existing Training Programs with Current Model

	Training Program[a]																					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Emotion Knowledge																						
Types of Emotion	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓						
Emotion Norms	✓				✓																	
Regulation Methods	✓					✓	✓						✓		✓				✓			
Processes/Outcomes	✓										✓				✓						✓	
Other																						
Emotion Recognition																						
Self-Awareness	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓		
Other-Awareness	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓
Appraisal	✓	✓			✓						✓				✓			✓				
Other											✓											
Emotion Regulation																						
Self-Regulation	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	
Other-Regulation		✓				✓					✓		✓		✓			✓				
Other											✓											
Emotional expression																						
Authentic																						
Adaptive																						
Alternative																						
Modified																						
Other															✓							

Note[a] Numbers correspond to training program numbers presented in Appendix A.

Appendix E. **Coverage of Existing Training Programs with Current Model (continued)**

	Training Program[a]																					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Individual Differences																						
Extraversion																				✓		
Neuroticism																				✓		
Conscientiousness																				✓		
Openness																				✓		
Agreeable																				✓		
Cognitive Ability																						
Trait Affect																			✓		✓	
Self-monitoring																						
Empathy																		✓				✓
Other																✓		✓	✓			✓
Situational Moderators																						
Social Complexity																						
Uncertainty																						
Stress and Conflict																						
Personal Relevance																						
Other																					✓	

Note[a] Numbers correspond to training program numbers presented in Appendix A.

Appendix E. **Coverage of Existing Training Programs with Current Model (continued)**

	Training Program[a]																					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Training Transfer Enablers																						
Organizational Culture				✓							✓		✓									
Group Climate													✓									
Individual Attitudes											✓											
Other											✓											
Emotion Relevant Leader Performance																						
Conflict Resolution		✓						✓				✓	✓									
Team building		✓						✓					✓									
Command Climate		✓											✓									
Influence		✓											✓									
Judgment & Decision Making		✓															✓					
Subordinate Development		✓			✓	✓		✓														
Other													✓				✓					

Note[a] Numbers correspond to training program numbers presented in Appendix A.

***Appendix F*: Summary of Existing Training Programs**

Title	**1. Developing Your Emotional Intelligence**
Company and/or Author	American Management Association
Source	http://www.amanet.org/seminars/seminar.cfm?basesemno=2144
Focus of Training	Increasing self-awareness and building better relationships
Targets of Training	Managers
Schedule of Training	2 days
Format of Training	On-site seminar
Cost of Training	$2000 per person
Theoretical Foundation	The ability based model of emotional intelligence
Indication of Effectiveness	None provided
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Types of emotions, emotional norms, information about different general emotion regulation methods, processes and outcomes involved with emotions, self-awareness of emotions, awareness of others' emotions, training on appraising others' emotions, self-regulation skills

Title	**2. Leading for Emotional Intelligence**
Company and/or Author	American Management Association
Source	http://www.amanet.org/seminars/seminar.cfm?basesemno=2133
Focus of Training	Developing knowledge and practical EI skills
Targets of Training	Leaders and OD and HR professionals
Schedule of Training	3 days, schedule of available dates provided (or it can be done on site)
Format of Training	On-site; case studies, self-assessment exercises
Cost of Training	$2345 for non AMA members and $2095 for AMA members
Theoretical Foundation	None specifically, but they refer to "recent investigations" that indicate EI is important to leadership
Indication of Effectiveness	None provided
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Self-Awareness, self-regulation, awareness of others, understanding outcomes of emotions, considering specific situations, creating a culture that is supportive of EI, developing EI for teamwork, conflict, collaboration, influence and motivation of others

Title	**3. Emotional Intelligence Toolbox**
Company and/or Author	Blair Consulting Group
Source	http://www.blairconsultants.com/emotion.html
Focus of Training	Training others on emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Managers/HR Supervisors
Schedule of Training	NA
Format of Training	Literature to read, workbooks
Cost of Training	$70 per packet
Theoretical Foundation	Lefave Emotional Intelligence Competency Model
Indication of Effectiveness	No results listed, pre and post test can be conducted with measure provided in the packet
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	NA

Title	**4. Emotional Intelligence Training**
Company and/or Author	Byron Stock and Associates
Source	http://www.byronstock.com/
Focus of Training	The effect of emotions on decision making, communication, and self-regulation
Targets of Training	Managers
Schedule of Training	Variable, based on needs assessment
Format of Training	One-on-one interviews, surveys, workshops, and computer-based training
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	None provided
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre and post, normed, survey to measure changes in productivity, job satisfaction, and communication
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Organizational culture

Title	**5. Emotional Competence**
Company and/or Author	American Express
Source	http://www.eiconsortium.org/model_programs/emotional_competence_training.html
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Managers
Schedule of Training	4 or 5 days, divided into two segments separated by one to two months
Format of Training	Lectures, small group discussions, individual exercises involving drawing and writing, demonstrations, movie clips, and role plays
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	No specific theory mentioned, but discusses emotional intelligence
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre-test and post-test for training group and control group on Seligman Attributional Styles Questionnaire (measure of optimism and coping skill) Comparison of training and control group on increases in sales performance before and after training
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Emotion norms, emotional self-awareness, recognizing other's emotions, emotion regulation strategies, how to coach others to develop self-awareness

Title	**6. Emotional Intelligence Training**
Company and/or Author	Equanimity
Source	http://www.eqspeakers.com/index.php/programs/training/emotel
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence development
Targets of Training	Leaders
Schedule of Training	None provided
Format of Training	Web-based assessment, facilitated discussions, exercises, case studies, individual coaching, follow-up assessment
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	None provided
Indication of Effectiveness	Anecdotal evidence (e.g., "we have inspired numerous business executives") but no data.
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Understanding emotions, self Awareness, self regulation and other regulation, decision making, feedback exchange, crisis

Title	**7. Emotional Intelligence at Work**
Company and/or Author	H2 Training and Consultancy
Source	http://www.h2training.com/emotional_intelligence_ outline_2009.pdf
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Employees (managers, team members)
Schedule of Training	1 day course
Format of Training	Role play, simulations, and scenarios
Cost of Training	$430-$550 (varies by type of organization and number of trainees)
Theoretical Foundation	No specific theory mentioned, but discusses emotional intelligence
Indication of Effectiveness	None provided
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Types of emotions, regulation methods, emotional self-awareness, recognizing other's emotions

Title	**8. Emotional Intelligence for Personal Leadership**
Company and/or Author	Institute for Health and Human Potential
Source	http://www.ihhp.com/Downloads/Accreditation_Information-2009.pdf
Focus of Training	Emotion management skills and knowledge about emotions
Targets of Training	Managers
Schedule of Training	1 or 2 days
Format of Training	Seminar/workshop style; use of computer-based and text-based training; follow-up training over the phone
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	No specific theory or emotional intelligence literature cited
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre-test based on feedback of associates/friends/relatives; no post-test listed
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Types of emotions, self-awareness of emotions, awareness of others' emotions, self-regulation skills, conflict resolution, subordinate development

Title	**9. EQ in Action**
Company and/or Author	Learning in Action
Source	http://learninginaction.com/eq_in_action_profile.php
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Individuals, teams and organizations – geared at leaders, managers and professionals
Schedule of Training	2 day intensive program or distance learning (teleconference) option
Format of Training	Self-assessment tool to guide training, lecture, practice, and personalized feedback provided
Cost of Training	$1100 for intensive, $1000 for distance learning (both have 10% off for early registration)
Theoretical Foundation	Refers to EI in general via Goleman, Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, and Saarni. Says that they take a mostly developmental approach.
Indication of Effectiveness	None provided
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Self-awareness, self-regulation, awareness of others (they refer to it as empathy), evaluating your personal triggers, considering situations, understanding types of emotions

Title	**10. The Effective Leader: Understanding and Applying Emotional Intelligence**
Company and/or Author	John D. Mayer and David Caruso
Source	Ivey Business Journal
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Leaders
Schedule of Training	NA
Format of Training	NA
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Mayer & Salovey – four branch model of skills emotional intelligence
Indication of Effectiveness	Refers to research and general findings but no specific citations – encourages further research to validate
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Awareness of self and others (perception of emotions), emotions and decision making, understanding emotions, understanding situations and context

Title	**11. EQ Leadership**
Company and/or Author	Six Seconds Consulting
Source	http://www.6seconds-sea.com/courses_eq_leadership.html
Focus of Training	Emotion regulation and recognition in self and others
Targets of Training	Managers
Schedule of Training	Variable, full course takes 2 days
Format of Training	Computer based learning, lecture, text-based activities, role playing
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Goleman's model
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre and post testing using measure developed by Six Seconds, the SEI emotional intelligence measure; specific results not listed
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Types of emotions, processes and outcomes involved with emotions, self-awareness of emotions, awareness of others' emotions, training on appraising others' emotions, self-regulation skills, skills for regulating others' emotions, effect of and how to change organizational culture, effect of and how to change individual attitudes

Title	**12. EQ Training Certification**
Company and/or Author	Talent Smart
Source	http://www.talentsmart.com/eqcert/
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Managers and business professionals
Schedule of Training	2 day workshop
Format of Training	They do a pre-assessment of you that is self-report and an assessment by your peers. Includes lecture and practice and you receive personal feedback from multiple raters.
Cost of Training	$1995 and $1795 off if you sign up in advance
Theoretical Foundation	None specifically but they refer to "general EQ research"
Indication of Effectiveness	None provided
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Self-awareness, other-awareness, self-regulation, other-regulation, perceiving, understanding and managing emotions, understanding situations, understanding conflict and understanding emotions in general

Title	**13. Emotional Intelligence Leadership Training**
Company and/or Author	Truenorth Leadership, Inc.
Source	http://www.truenorthleadership.com/EIServices/leaddevtrain.html
Focus of Training	Emotional intelligence
Targets of Training	Executives, managers
Schedule of Training	7-8 days spread over 4-5 months
Format of Training	Assessment using a number of measures (ECI, EQI, MBTI, Inventory of leadership styles, organizational climate survey), reading literature, ropes course
Cost of Training	$430-$550 (varies by type of organization and number of trainees)
Theoretical Foundation	No specific theory mentioned, but discusses emotional intelligence and uses Goleman's measure the ECI
Indication of Effectiveness	None provided
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Types of emotions, regulation methods, emotional self-awareness, recognizing other's emotions

Title	**14. Emotion Recognition Feedback Training**
Company and/or Author	Elfenbein, H. (2006). Learning in emotion judgments: Training and the cross-cultural understanding of facial expressions.
Source	*Journal of Nonverbal Behavior, 30*, 21-36
Focus of Training	Training cross cultural understanding of facial expressions
Targets of Training	NA
Schedule of Training	3 sessions, unknown length of time
Format of Training	Computer-based training using photographs
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Ekman & Friesen, 1976
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre and post testing using measure for accuracy of facial expression recognition
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Awareness of other's emotions

Title	**15. Negotiations Training**
Company and/or Author	Reilly, P. (2005). Teaching law students how to feel: Using negotiations training to increase emotional intelligence.
Source	*Negotiation Journal, 21*, 301-314
Focus of Training	Improve emotional ability of law students using negotiating scenarios
Targets of Training	Law Students
Schedule of Training	One semester
Format of Training	Roleplaying negotiations, group discussion
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Mayer & Salovey's ability based model of emotional intelligence
Indication of Effectiveness	Unknown
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Information about different general emotion regulation methods, Processes and outcomes involved with emotions, Awareness of others' emotions, Training on appraising others' emotions, Self-regulation skills Skills for regulating other's emotions

Title	**16. Micro-expressions Training Tool**
Company and/or Author	Russell, T., Chu, E., and Phillips, M. (2006). A pilot research effort to investigate the effectiveness of emotion recognition remediation in schizophrenia using the micro-expression training tool.
Source	*British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 45*, 579-583
Focus of Training	Improve emotional recognition skills of individuals with schizophrenia
Targets of Training	Schizophrenia patients
Schedule of Training	One session, unknown length
Format of Training	Computer-based training using photographs
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Green, Williams, & Davidson, 2003
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre and post test on emotion recognition skills
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Information about different types of emotions Awareness of others' emotions

Title	**17. Point-of-View Writing**
Company and/or Author	Shapiro, J., Rucker, L., Boker, J., & Lie, D. (2006). Point-of-View writing: A method for increasing medical students' empathy, identification and expression of emotion, and insight.
Source	*Education for Health, 19,* 96-105
Focus of Training	Emotional awareness, and appropriate identification and expression of emotions
Targets of Training	2nd year medical students
Schedule of Training	Wrote one essay each month
Format of Training	Writing essays from the point of view of the patient
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Very little – cites some research supporting outcomes of point of view writing
Indication of Effectiveness	Rated essays for emotion relevant content and patients assessed student on communication, physical exam and professionalism, and overall satisfaction with student. Results indicated that POV writers showed more empathy for the doctor and received higher ratings for empathy and insight. No differences found in ratings by patients between the POV group and the control group.
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Awareness of others emotions, expressing emotion

Title	**18. Inservice Empathy Training**
Company and/or Author	Ancel, G. (2006). Developing empathy in nurses: An inservice training program.
Source	*Archives of Psychiatric Nursing, 20,* 249-257
Focus of Training	Enhancing the empathy skills of nurses when dealing with patients
Targets of Training	Nurses
Schedule of Training	20 hours, made up of 5 sessions
Format of Training	Lecture, text-based activities, role playing
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Campbell's self-knowledge model, Dokmen's empathic classification model
Indication of Effectiveness	Pre and post testing using measure developed by Dokmen to measure empathic communication skills
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Self-regulation skills, self-awareness of emotions, information about different general emotion regulation methods, Individual differences in emotions, specifically trait affect

Title	**19. Long-term Mediation Training**
Company and/or Author	Nielsen, L. and Kaszniak, A.W. (2006). Awareness of subtle emotional feelings: A comparison of long-term mediators and non-mediators.
Source	*Emotion, 6*, 392-405
Focus of Training	Evaluated the difference in emotional awareness as a function of meditation
Targets of Training	Undergrads that engaged in either no meditation or meditation over a long period of time
Schedule of Training	NA (not really training, just looked at personal habits that could, ultimately, be trained)
Format of Training	NA
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	They mention Goleman, but take a mostly physiological basis
Indication of Effectiveness	Non-meditators were more sensitive to affective feelings – meditation may result in people automatically regulating emotions and thus they are not as sensitive to changes in affective situations
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Self-awareness, self-regulation

Title	**20. Mindfulness Training**
Company and/or Author	Ortner, C. N., Kilner, S. J., and Zelazo, P. D. (2007). Mindfulness mediation and reduced emotional interference.
Source	*Motivation Emotion, 31*, 271-283
Focus of Training	Attentional control directed toward task in emotional contexts
Targets of Training	Paid participants from a university
Schedule of Training	1.5 hours training each week for 7 weeks and daily practice
Format of Training	Weekly class taught by a yogi, daily meditation practices and daily log describing practice
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Mindfulness mediation (no specific theory)
Indication of Effectiveness	Comparison on pre and post measurements between the treatment (mindful meditation), alternative treatment (relaxation meditation) and a control group on behavioral and self-report measures of emotional experience scales and psychophysiological measures of emotional reactivity
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Self-awareness, self-regulation, Measured the Big 5 personality traits

Title	**21. Processing mode (of emotional stimuli) training**
Company and/or Author	Watkins, E., Moberly, N. J., & Moulds, M. L. (2008). Processing mode causally in influences emotional reactivity: Distinct effects of abstract versus concrete construal on emotional response.
Source	*Emotion, 8*, 364-378
Focus of Training	Evaluating causal influences on emotional reactivity
Targets of Training	Community and student volunteers (general public)
Schedule of Training	One session – no time length given
Format of Training	Read over 30 descriptions of positive and negative situations and told to imagine it happened to them. Some given instructions that induced depressive rumination and some that did not. Then put into a situation that induced stress and feelings of failure
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Yes but mostly focused on mood disorder research rather than emotions research
Indication of Effectiveness	Found that inducing thought process antithetical to depressive rumination resulted in less emotional reactivity to subsequent stressful situations
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Regulation strategies

Title	**22. Communication skills training**
Company and/or Author	Winefield, H. R., &d Chur-Hansen, A. (2000). Evaluating the outcome of communication skill teaching for entry-level medical students: Does knowledge of empathy increase?
Source	*Medical Education, 34*, 90-94
Focus of Training	Teaching empathy
Targets of Training	First year medical students
Schedule of Training	Two 1.5 hour workshops a week apart
Format of Training	Lecture, video, handouts, opportunity to practice and conduct a planned interview with a mock patient. Received individualized feedback on performance
Cost of Training	NA
Theoretical Foundation	Yes but focuses on empathy
Indication of Effectiveness	Evaluative ratings collected after training, pencil and paper test of empathy pre and post training. Most students showed improvement in making empathetic responses.
Elements of This Training Present in Proposed Model	Awareness of others, emotional expression